

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1881.

The Week.

THE steady improvement of the President ever since Sunday, in spite of the rather gloomy forebodings of the doctors, is a medical fact which has not been adequately discussed. There has been a great deal of medical opinion collected by the reporters, but it has necessarily been presented to the public in a very confused shape, and, having been reported by laymen, probably contains much inaccuracy. Some doctors, for instance, confidently expected peritonitis, and were reported to anticipate it in company with a rising pulse, while others say that peritonitis is always accompanied by a falling pulse. It seems to be pretty evident, anyhow, that there was a serious but not sad mistake in the diagnosis, and that the bullet has probably not touched any vital part.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* has published an article on the condition and prospects of the American money market, which has been telegraphed to this country and has been giving the Wall Street bears some comfort. It predicts a financial crisis here before long, and thinks the autumn would be the proper time for it, as American exports will then begin to fall off under the influence of European good harvests. The stability of the New York money market, it argues, depends upon its power to continue drawing gold from Europe, and this power must cease to be effective in the presence of a bountiful European harvest, of which there is now a fair prospect. The stability of the New York money market is a phrase standing much in need of definition. There are other places besides Europe from which New York can draw gold in case of need. The interior of the United States is one such place. As regards the question of stability, we can recall many times and seasons when the New York money market remained stable while not only drawing no gold from Europe but exporting large sums thither. If the *Pall Mall Gazette* discerns any reasons why the present time is so peculiar that we must continue to draw \$70,000,000 gold per annum from abroad in addition to our own production of the metal, we confess our inability to discover them. It is one of the settled doctrines of political economy that importations of gold beyond the needs of circulation are of no advantage to a country, and while no one can say exactly what those needs are, it is the opinion of good judges that they have been already overpassed in this country, and that the excess of gold lies dormant like other unused capital. The advance in general prices has not been sufficient to account for its presence among us in a state of active circulation. We know that it has come, for it has been counted and weighed at the Assay

Office, but it has seemed to sink into the sand rather than remain upon the surface of trade. It has replaced the capital represented by our excess of exports, but has not yet acted upon prices to any great extent. Undoubtedly prices have risen somewhat from their lowest level after the panic of 1873, but the advance is not sufficiently marked as yet to awaken uneasiness.

A bountiful European harvest is not, in our judgment, an event calculated to produce a financial crisis in this country. We cannot conceive how it should cause our people to owe more than they can pay. If we have already contracted debts abroad, or to each other, based upon the expectation that all future European harvests were to be bad and all of our own good, the occurrence of a bountiful crop abroad might put us in the predicament of being unable to pay such obligations; and that would be a financial crisis, greater or less, according to the amount of indebtedness in default. But mere inability to sell our surplus abroad would have no other tendency than to lessen our ability to buy—that is, to make us economical. A year or two of economy and “close rubbing” would perhaps be good for us, although uncomfortable. It would certainly postpone rather than hasten the oncoming of a financial crisis. If the *Pall Mall Gazette* means, by its allusions to the stability of the New York money market, that circumstances may arise which will cause a tumble in American railway stocks for want of money to “carry” them at present prices, we can readily see the drift of its argument; but this is a very different thing from a financial crisis as that phenomenon is known in the financial world. The one certain consequence of the loss of our gold by European drafts on it would be that we should have to drop down on our silver, but there is no other. This would be very unfortunate, but it would not necessarily bring about a financial collapse.

It has been a dull week in Wall Street. The attack on the President at first caused a sharp decline in prices at the Stock Exchange; it also influenced money-lenders to call for the payment of their loans. From the decline in prices there was a quick recovery; but this was only temporary, as other influences of a depressing character soon sent prices downwards. The chief of these was the renewal of rate-cutting by the trunk-line railroads, and this continued up to the close of the week, and extended to westward as well as eastward bound freight, and to passenger traffic. The impression in Wall Street is that this whole trunk-line disturbance has been fostered by Mr. Vanderbilt for his own purposes in the stock market, and that it will suddenly cease when these purposes are accomplished. This may be unjust to Mr. Vanderbilt, but his

“operations” in stocks in the last few months have been such that it is by no means incredible, as it would have been if it had been said of his father. Railroad traffic continues heavy. A few roads are not carrying as much as last year, but nearly all show an important gain, and some a most surprising one. The volume of domestic mercantile business continues large; foreign trade, as reflected by the returns of the New York Custom-house, is not so large as a year ago, but much exceeds that of the corresponding season in 1879. The New York money market has not yet returned to the extremely easy condition it was in early in June, but rates for loans have hardly been above 4 per cent. The foreign capital lent here, which was called in on the first and second business days after the attack on the President, is returning to the loan market for employment. There has been a profit neither in importing nor exporting gold during the week, but the tendency is rather to the importing point. The price of silver bullion in London fell from 52½d. to 50½d. per ounce as the result of the adjournment without results of the International Monetary Conference; here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar fell to \$0.8585.

The discussion as to the Presidential succession makes it important to call attention to the fact that we owe the non-election of a *pro tempore* President of the Senate altogether to Messrs. Conkling and Arthur. At the last session of the Senate, as is well known to all the leading Washington politicians, when in consequence of the resignation of Messrs. Conkling and Platt the Democrats had a majority, it was suggested to Mr. Arthur that he should, in accordance with the practice invariably followed, vacate the chair for the purpose of permitting the election of a President *pro tempore*. He enquired who would be the Senator selected by the Democrats, and on learning that Mr. Bayard was their candidate retained the chair and thus prevented an election. Mr. Conkling at the same time is said to have made the same enquiry and received the same reply. This does not appear to have been the result of a determination to prevent a Democrat from being chosen, for the *Republican*, Mr. Conkling's organ at Washington, suggested that if Mr. Harris, of Tennessee, should be elected the opportunity would be afforded. Mr. Harris had paired against Judge Robertson's confirmation, and was therefore believed to be in sympathy with the anti-Administration cabal. Mr. Conkling, through Mr. Arthur, in fact, deliberately refused to allow the constitutional means to be taken to provide for the Presidential succession, solely in order to keep out of the chair of the Senate anybody who had not favored him in his effort to keep the control of the New York offices, thus giving one more alarming indication of the complete contempt in which he holds all general

considerations of the public interest when these seem to conflict with those of the unscrupulous faction at whose head he stands or stood.

Mr. Conkling wrote a letter to Attorney-General MacVeagh on the 5th, conveying his condolences to the President and Mrs. Garfield, and suggesting a change in the law to increase the certainty and severity of punishment for attacks on "high executive officers." The proposal has been very effectively treated by a correspondent on another page. His expressions of sympathy sound a little stiff and constrained, particularly as they are preceded by a discussion of a poor law point, but it is not easy to seem simple and natural in condoling with a man whom you have a few days previously been savagely denouncing as a liar and cheat, and whose household arrangements you have been ridiculing to the newspaper reporters. Generous or magnanimous talk to or about an enemy, too, is not the least in Mr. Conkling's line. His ideal of a happy retreat in his old age is probably very like Heine's—a pretty cottage embowered in flowers, with a smooth lawn sloping to the water's edge, and a wide-spreading chestnut-tree in front of the door, with about half a dozen of his enemies hanging to the boughs. Mr. Conkling has, on the whole, borne himself well in a trying situation, and so has Mr. Arthur. The attack on the President did the latter the inestimable service of taking him to Washington, where a few days of seclusion and quiet have made people begin to think kindly of him again.

The probabilities are, at this writing, that within a day or two Mr. Conkling's political career will be closed, for the present at least, by the election of successors to him and Platt. The Administration or "Half-Breed" Republicans have succeeded in having a caucus called by a Republican majority, and having it nominate for the Senatorships. The Conklingites refused to take part in it, but on no defensible grounds, and a fatal break in their ranks is now looked for every day. The President's recovery has doubtless done much to hasten this result. It seems a long time since Conkling and Platt were in the zenith of their insolence at Rochester in 1877, but the end has come, and when one thinks that it has been wrought out by themselves, or, in other words, that Conkling has literally ruined his own machine, his late madness has a providential air. The press could probably never have destroyed him.

General Grant has been having another "talk"—this time with a reporter of the *World*—on the attempted assassination and its possible results. Of the possible results he takes the same cheerful view as Mr. Conkling. He says nothing would happen, "that he could see, except to disappoint—seriously disappoint—some men who want office. The places they want will be filled by men equally as competent." This is a thought which, doubtless,

during the last ten days has cheered many a Stalwart heart. General Grant, of course, does not share in the widespread foreboding about Mr. Arthur's administration of the Government, in case of the President's death. In fact, he evidently thinks he is just the man for the place. Mr. Arthur's language at the Dorsey dinner does not affect him unfavorably, because he presided at the dinner himself. The popular impression about Mr. Arthur's unfitness he ascribes to the "shameless and villanous manner in which he has been slandered by the bitter newspapers known as the Half-Breed press," which have painted him as "a monster"; whereas he (Grant) knows him to be "a man of common sense and clear-headed, with good associates—a man of integrity."

Nobody of the "Grant crowd," in fact, seems to be at all cast down by the crisis, except the Rev. Dr. Newman, who was General Grant's chaplain in Washington, and afterward his travelling "inspector of consulates." This gentleman delivered a terrible sermon on the Fourth, in which he demanded the disfranchisement of all persons of foreign birth and the suppression of infidel lecturers like Colonel "Bob" Ingersoll. The disfranchisement of all foreign-born citizens would, as it seems to us, be a very harsh measure, and we trust that the Doctor will not insist on it, even if the Stalwarts do come into power. Guiteau is not a foreigner, and, even if he were, why punish whole classes of citizens for the crime of one man? Besides, the foreigners are not as bad as they seem. Wilkes Booth was a native; so was Bill Tweed; so is Jim McDonauld, the leading whiskey thief of the West; so was Jim Fisk; and so is his late partner, Jay Gould; and so is Bob Ingersoll, the eminent infidel; and so were Babcock and Casey. Andrew Johnson, who was well known for a while as the "greatest criminal of the age," was a native. The "rebel brigadiers," too, are all natives. In fact, in the matter of wickedness the natives hold their own manfully with the bad fellows who come over in the emigrant ships. We therefore propose as an amendment to Dr. Newman's suggestion that the wicked and atheistic natives be disfranchised along with the foreigners. We shall then be a happy and prosperous people. The "Half-Breed" consuls all over the world must by this time be trembling in their boots lest the Doctor should come round again to "inspect" them.

The London *Times* thought there was some probability that the Paris Monetary Conference might accomplish its objects in part through the help of the Bank of England, which agreed to take and hold a limited quantity of silver against its note circulation as authorized by the Bank Act of 1844. With the co-operation of the Bank to this extent, and the co-operation of Germany to the extent of stopping sales of silver for a certain period, and enlarging her circulation of subsidiary coins, the *Times* thought it would be possible for France and the United

States to adopt bi-metallism, and that they would probably do so. Mr. Thurman hastened to disabuse men's minds on this subject, by saying that the United States would not be satisfied with half-way measures on the part of England and Germany, and would not permit the free coinage of silver unless those countries do likewise. There is a further obstacle in the way of bi-metallism which neither the *Times* nor Mr. Thurman, so far as appears, has made mention of—namely, the difficulty of agreeing upon a ratio. The United States are committed to the "dollar of the fathers"—that is, to the ratio of 16 to 1. This commitment is no light fantastic choice based upon the value of the metals, but rests upon solid ancestral grounds. Sixteen to one appeals to the heart; patriotic emotions are stirred by it; it is the only ratio for us. With 15½ or 18½, or any other ratio, bi-metallism will go overboard in a trice, so far as we are concerned. It could not last a year.

Dr. Woolsey, of New Haven, in an interview with a *Herald* reporter, insists upon the desirability of securing uniform laws on the subject of marriage and divorce throughout the country. The statistics on the subject are very meagre, and thus far chiefly go to show the great popularity of divorce as an "institution." In 1878, for instance, there were more divorces granted in Massachusetts and Connecticut than in England and Wales together. Connecticut down to that year permitted divorce for "any such misconduct as permanently destroys the happiness of the petitioner and defeats the purpose of the marriage relation," a provision which practically made the matter one of judicial discretion; but in Massachusetts, where no such law has ever existed, and with a population of 1,783,000, six hundred divorces were granted in 1878, against eight hundred in England and Wales, with a population of 24,000,000. Dr. Woolsey thinks that divorce lawyers are the most bitter opponents of divorce-law reform, and of course they can hardly be expected to favor it; but behind them there is a laxity of public sentiment which makes permanent improvement of the law difficult. In this State, for instance, the sole ground for absolute divorce is adultery; yet the Legislature a year or two since passed an act permitting the guilty party to remarry, on producing satisfactory proof of "good behavior" since his divorce; and this extraordinary statute was got through the Legislature by a divorced husband for the simple purpose of enabling him to contract a new marriage.

The *Maritime Register* calls attention to a phase of railway monopoly which is not altogether new, but which seems to have had a late revival. Two or three years ago the merchants of San Francisco were invited, or rather constrained, by the Pacific railways to abandon the Isthmus route for the transportation of goods from the Atlantic coast. The process by which this monopolizing scheme was enforced was substantially this: The

railways would offer freight contracts to merchants and shippers at very low rates on condition that they would send all their goods by rail, not merely light, costly, and perishable articles requiring promptness of delivery, but heavy and bulky freight as well. If the merchant declined to make such a contract he was required to pay high rates for everything—that is, the railways had two different rates for the same service for two different customers. The man who wished to send pianos by rail and pig-iron by water paid a high rate on pianos; while another who would agree to send both by rail paid a low rate. The duty of the common carrier at common law to carry for all alike was openly disregarded. There was great complaint against these arbitrary proceedings, and the obnoxious rule of the railway companies was finally rescinded, but not until arrangements had been effected with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company which rendered it no longer useful for the purposes for which it was designed.

Now the *Maritime Register* informs us that the practice has been revived and the rule again put in force as against the sailing vessels which go around Cape Horn. An improved method, as we are informed, has been adopted for enforcing it against the commercial public. All shippers are charged the same rates, but after a certain lapse of time, if it is found that a particular merchant has neither received nor handled any goods carried by the way of Cape Horn, he receives back from the railway company a portion of the freight-money already paid. Whether this roundabout proceeding is adopted in order to evade legal penalties, or merely to keep the whip in the hands of the railway companies, is immaterial. It amounts to unlawful and aggravated discrimination, and should be proceeded against as such with all vigor by the parties injured and by the public authorities. These railway companies are still subject to the control of Congress, notwithstanding the partial settlement effected with them under the Thurman bill. One of the provisions of their original charter requires them to operate their roads, as regards the Government, the public, and their connecting lines, "without any discrimination whatever." This provision is perhaps the most important one in their act of incorporation, and it is one which should be promptly enforced whenever departed from.

The accident to the *Britannic*, of the White Star line, is another singular illustration of the good luck of the Cunard line. During the last thirty years the Cunarders have had little if any superiority to boast over some competing lines, except in safety. Every now and then it has seemed as if they were likely to lose this by the prolonged immunity from accident of some of their competitors. People were beginning to think that, after all, one was just as secure on board some other boats, besides being more comfortable, but this confidence has never

long shown itself before it was ruined by a wreck or disappearance, followed by another rush of the timid to the Cunard gangways. The theory, too, that "it was all luck," which long helped some rival lines, is being rapidly sapped by time. Good luck never lasts very long, and the people begin to suspect that that of the Cunarders cannot be a genuine article. There is apparently something more behind it, at all events, even than efficiency or watchfulness. There must be extreme caution. It is curious how little is known, after all, by the public about the internal economy of the great steamship lines—that is, how small its materials are for judging of the safety of a line beyond the number of its accidents. Who knows, for instance, whether there is any difference, and, if so, what, between the policy of the different lines in dealing with prolonged fogs? That there is some difference is quite clear, but it is kept very close.

The Irish Land Bill will probably pass the House of Commons during the coming week. Opposition to it has all but completely died out, and there is little expectation that it will even be subjected to severe criticism in the Lords. Attention has been called to the fact that it does nothing directly for a very large and wretched class—the Irish farm-laborers—by the arrival in London of a deputation from them to lay their woes before the Government. Cardinal Manning, whom they went to see, consoled them by saying that the Land Bill once passed, their turn would come next, but that any importunate agitation on their part just now might impede the bill without doing them any good. What can be done for them by legislation it is somewhat difficult to see, beyond giving their children compulsory education or compelling farmers to give them small plots of ground with fixity of tenure, but this would be going much further in interference with freedom of contract than the Land Bill has ventured on. A farmer must be at liberty to discharge his laborers in his discretion, and if he had to give a cottage and plot with a lease to all laborers he employed he would soon be eaten up by them. What bears hardest on the Irish farm-laborers, besides the farmer's poverty and insecurity, is the climate. The number of wet days for which he gets no pay is very great, and if he is hired by the year they count in keeping down his wages.

The question, What will the Land League leaders do when the Land Bill is passed, should the farmers be satisfied with it? of course becomes more interesting as the speedy passage of the bill becomes more certain. Mr. Parnell and his followers say they look forward to a political separation of Ireland from England, either total or partial, and they even have a plan for the resolution of the British Empire into a federal union, with a common parliament for common interests and local parliaments for Ireland and the colonies. There is not the least probability that any such scheme

will ever be carried out, or that any of the colonies would like it, or that it would work for five years if tried, or that Englishmen would submit to it, except in despair about the Empire. The colonies want to go alone, and they will be allowed to do so in all but the name. The Irish difficulty will probably be solved by the creation in Ireland, as in England, of elective county governments, and by the gradual surrender of Irish affairs in the Imperial Parliament to Irish members, as those of Scotland have been surrendered to the Scotch members. From this will come inevitably more care in the selection of members by Irish constituencies. As long as the chief duty of an Irish member is to agitate or "stir up" the Ministry and the Englishmen, any sort of blatant, loud-mouthed man, like Biggar or Healy, answers the purpose. If the Irish members were charged with real responsibility, and the Irish Secretary were an Irishman and stood in the same relation to them that the Lord Advocate stands to the Scotch members, Irish constituencies would soon tire of the type of political adventurer now so successful among them.

The English National Liberal Federation Association adopted at its late meeting in Birmingham a very strong circular address to the various associations of which it is composed, severely censuring the conduct of the Liberal members of the House of Commons who, either by absenting themselves or by voting in the affirmative on Mr. Heneage's amendment to the Irish Land Bill a fortnight ago, brought the ministerial majority down to twenty-five. The delinquents in this case are mostly men of Whig antecedents, but they might more properly be called "Society" Liberals—that is, they are men whose social and business relations incline them to highly conservative views of all questions relating to property, and who find it hard work to follow Mr. Gladstone in the teeth of the detestation with which a large portion of London society regards him. The tone of the circular indicates clearly enough that at his death a serious split in the Liberal party, which the Tories have been so long predicting and expecting, will be no longer delayed. The Radicals have set their hearts on getting rid of government by landlords and restoring the old representative or popular government of counties, which would, if carried out, involve something like a reconstruction of English society, and there are not many of the old Whigs or Society Liberals who would be trusted, even if they were willing, to lead in such a movement. In other words, there is probably impending in English politics some such change as has occurred in France since the overthrow of MacMahon, namely, the passage of the Government into the hands of men who do not form part of "Society," and whom Society tries to despise. There are signs of this in the case of the Gladstone Ministry, but still Mr. Gladstone and many of his colleagues are really members of the aristocracy by antecedents, education, or position.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD has been steadily improving during the week which has now elapsed since the physicians began to entertain strong hopes of his recovery. The excessive heat has been unfortunate, though not seriously retarding, and various devices to cool the air of the sick-chamber have been tried, with some success. The newspapers have interviewed physicians right and left upon every point conceivably connected with the case. Dr. Hamilton, one of the consulting surgeons, now thinks it possible that the ball has no more than grazed the liver. Professor Weisse, of the New York University Medical School, has been making experiments upon a cadaver with a pistol of the same calibre as Guiteau's, and is "very nearly convinced" that the liver has not been touched, and confident that the ball is in the sacral plexus. The papers report details of numerous similar cases all over the country. Telegrams of sympathy and enquiry have continued to pour in from every direction at home and abroad, and resolutions to be adopted by different commercial and political organizations. The most important of the various meetings held was that of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday last, at which Mr. Cyrus W. Field started a subscription, which speedily reached a very large amount, for a fund, the income to be given to Mrs. Garfield during her life, and the principal to be divided among her children after her death. The attempted outrage is also still a pulpit theme, and was the subject of President Hinsdale, of Hiram College, at Washington on Sunday.

Scraps of Guiteau's history come to light from day to day and witness an unsavory record, social and domestic. The District Attorney has intimated the possibility of procuring his indictment for each "attempt" on the President's life in case of the latter's recovery—for each of the two shots fired, that is—which would permit an imprisonment of sixteen years upon conviction. The Executive Committee of the Board of Transportation of this city call for such amendments to existing laws as will make a similar attempt treason and punishable with death. An escaped lunatic named McNamara, inspired by God to kill Secretary Blaine, or perhaps Vice-President Arthur, appeared in Washington last week and was sent to the insane asylum. Several persons have been reported who expressed gratification at Guiteau's crime; they were hardly used by bystanders, one being fatally beaten. Another was expelled from the Dayton, Ohio, Soldiers' Home.

Wednesday of last week the "feather-head" call for a conference of Republican members of the Legislature had received sixty-five signatures, and a meeting was held at which sixty-three members were present. No Conklingites attended. It resulted in the call for another on Thursday evening. On this occasion a caucus was called for the next afternoon, and when this met, fifteen Senators and fifty Assemblymen responded to their names. A letter was

read from Mr. Depew which is described as having had the effect of a great surprise. In it Mr. Depew withdrew his candidacy, and gave as his reasons the advice of trusted friends, "who fully concur that at the present juncture sacrifices and concessions ought to be made on all sides"; the embittered nature of the contest; the propriety, under the present circumstances of national grief, of ending it speedily; and the necessity of electing representatives to Congress in view of "a contingency not contemplated when the State left the Senate." A ballot, taken after the reading of this letter and after Senator Pitts and Mr. Husted had expressed the emotions it excited in them, resulted in Mr. Warner Miller's heading the list. Fifty-four votes were necessary, the Republican membership in the Legislature being 106, and on the fourth ballot Mr. Miller secured this number and was nominated for the long term to succeed Platt. Mr. Elbridge G. Lapham was nominated for the long term to succeed Conkling. The following day the vote in joint session stood: Lapham, 67; Conkling, 31; Wheeler, 1; Potter, 50; and Miller, 68; Wheeler, 19; Kernan, 50; the rest scattering.

The conduct of each side is inconsistent from the point of view of the other. The Administration men censure the Conklingites for not participating in a caucus when it was called, having been at first so anxious to have one called. The latter reply that the thing is as broad as it is long, and that the time for a fair caucus went by long ago. Both the caucus candidates are present Congressmen, and are objected to because their election to the Senate might endanger the Republican majority in the House. Their districts are, however, both strongly Republican. Mr. Miller is from Herkimer County, served in the war, and is now engaged in the manufacture of paper, to which business is ascribed his advocacy of the duty on wood-pulp by which he has been chiefly known in Congress, to which he was elected in 1878 and in 1880. Mr. Lapham is from Ontario, where he was born and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1844. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1867, and has represented his district in Congress since 1874. On the first day of the balloting Mr. Miller got eight votes. Mr. Lapham's name appeared on the second day with one.

The Senate has occupied itself, in the intervals of balloting, with desultory discussion. The Governor sent in on the 7th his veto of Bill 408, known as the Water Bill, and providing for the construction of an additional aqueduct for conveying water from the Croton Dam to this city. The veto was laid on the table, notwithstanding a speech by Senator Forster in reply to the Governor's objections, which were economical. Last Wednesday and Thursday, the Railroad Commission Bill was attacked by Senators Fowler, Madden, McCarthy, and defended by Senators Pitts and Forster. Friday, the Governor transmitted a veto of the bill for the relief of John Foley, who claims salary due as supervisor of the

County of New York from 1869 to 1874, during which time he rendered valuable services in the Tweed Ring prosecution. The objections to its enactment assigned by the Governor consisted wholly in its unconstitutionality.

The Legislative Committee on the Bradley-Sessions case rendered three reports, Stalwart, Half-Breed, and Democratic, last week, which the indictment of Sessions robs of all but a subjective interest.

The bondholders' suits against the Manhattan Railway Company have been before the courts during the week, but the hearings were postponed to the 21st inst. A counter suit has been brought by the New York Company against the plaintiff in one of the foregoing, charging conspiracy. The election of directors of the Metropolitan road was held on Friday, and the ticket containing the names of Gould, Dillon, Sage, and others received a large majority—a result which is thought to argue friendly relations with the New York Company and a "speculative" future for Manhattan stock. On the same day Judge Blatchford denied the application of the French Cable Company for an injunction against the Western Union consolidation. The commissioners appointed by the Supreme Court to determine whether Broadway should be tunnelled despite the protests of property-owners, held their first meeting on the 6th inst. and heard favorable testimony.

Sir Edward Thornton, for thirteen years British Minister to the United States, and recently transferred to St. Petersburg, sailed for Liverpool on the 6th, and just before his departure a deputation of British residents of New York and representatives of the St. George's, St. Andrew's, St. David's, and Albion societies, the British Provident Association, and the New York Caledonian Club, presented him with an engrossed copy of testimonial resolutions. In replying to the presentation speech of Mr. Archibald, the British Consul-General, Sir Edward expressed his belief that the welfare of his countrymen here was "intimately connected with that of this great country," whose hopes of peace and prosperity, he said, seemed never more promising.

A centennial celebration of the publication of Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason' was held last week at Saratoga Springs, at which President Seelye, of Amherst, presided. Letters were read from eight other college presidents, and a number of addresses made by different professors of metaphysics. A committee was appointed to arrange for similar meetings at Saratoga. Still another rival to the Concord School opened at Greenwood Lake this week. It owes its origin mainly to the Rev. Dr. Charles F. Deems, the late Commodore Vanderbilt's favorite divine, and is called "The Summer School of Christian Philosophy." Both these undertakings probably differ somewhat in scope from the Concord School (which itself opened on Monday), and may follow more purely practical aims, such as the reconciliation of science and philosophy with the current orthodox theology

—without, however, shrinking from the results of a speculativeness as daring as that of Mr. Alcott and Professor Harris.

Among the later college commencements are those of the University of Alabama, of Bowdoin College, and of Williams, which last the President was to have attended. In an address before the Adelphi Society at Williams ex-Senator Ingalls took occasion to express the opinion that the civil-service reform was "un-American." The remark has attracted some attention to his oration, the circumstances under which this was delivered being unusual.

Bishop Stevens (Protestant Episcopal), of Eastern Pennsylvania, has enjoined the continued use of the authorized version of the New Testament in his diocese. Bishop Stevens is an advanced Low-Churchman.

Ex-Senator Hitchcock, of Nebraska, and the Rt. Rev. Bishop Kerfoot (Protestant Episcopal), of Western Pennsylvania, died last week.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone announced on Thursday, in reply to a question as to the Paris Silver Conference, that "there was no intention to alter the present currency laws, and the British delegates had no authority to make any other representations." The question as to why Great Britain was represented at all he did not touch upon. The Bank of England had agreed, he said, to the proposal of the Conference that the Bank should keep part of its reserve in silver, provided a union should be formed without the concurrence of England for the unlimited coinage of that metal. The Government had only been the medium of communication between the Conference and the Bank. At the Saturday's session of the Conference Mr. Evarts read a declaration of the French and American delegates' views, which was a mere epitome of the often-stated objects of the Convention. As to the ratio between the metals to be fixed by international agreement, any one "now or lately in use" would do, he declared, but fifteen and one-half to one was the best. The Conference, after arranging for correspondence between the participating states and a Conference April 22, 1882, adjourned on Friday.

A long correspondence between Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bradlaugh, just published, concludes with a letter from the latter regretting that the Government was either unable or unwilling to enforce the law in his case. He has also written the Speaker of the House of Commons threatening to present himself at the table again to take the oath.

The Land Bill progresses in the British House of Commons, but not so rapidly as to promise adjournment by August 6, as Mr. Gladstone has hoped. Clauses 7 (as amended), 8, 9, 10, and 11 were adopted on the 5th inst. On the following day clause 12 was postponed, and clause 13 adopted after amendment without a division. Clauses 14, 16, 17, and 18 were adopted on Thursday, clause 15 being postponed; and the 20th, 21st, 22d, 23d, and 24th on Friday, the first two with slight amend-

ments. On the same day Mr. Forster received a deputation of Irish farm-laborers accompanied by about eighty members of Parliament, including English and Scotch members and several Conservatives. In reply to their suggestions and criticisms he observed that if the Government could do any more than it was now attempting it would try—"if not this year they would do it as soon as possible." The same deputation called on Cardinal Manning on Sunday and got from the prelate a good deal of sympathy. No outrages are reported, and the efforts of the police have been confined to the seizure of a box of revolvers in Roscommon, and the arrest of seven persons under the Coercion act. The Land League, at its weekly meeting on the 5th, reported £1,587 received since its last meeting, £1,200 of which came from this country.

The largest body of volunteer troops ever assembled from all parts of the kingdom, and composed of 114 regiments of all arms, numbering over 50,000 men, was reviewed by the Queen on Saturday in the Great Park at Windsor.

The London *Sportsman*, which indignantly protested against the treatment of the Cornell crew at Henley, is equally outspoken in condemnation of the scandalous hustling of the American contestants in the athletic sports of the Moseley Harriers' Club at Birmingham on Saturday, where the races were stopped on its becoming evident that an American would win a walking handicap. This is no better than the French sense of fair play exhibited in the Vignaux-Slosson billiard-match.

Lord Dufferin has informed the Turkish authorities unofficially that clemency towards Midhat Pasha will be appreciated by Englishmen, though he has made no formal appeal to the Porte.

Lefroy, the English railway murderer, was arrested in London Friday, and remanded after arraignment the following day. He had made no effort at flight beyond concealing himself in Stepney, and his only disguise was a clean-shaven face. He is said to have been suffering from hunger and felt relieved at his arrest, though he observed that he was not guilty.

A Melbourne despatch of the 10th inst. reports the formation of a new Victorian Ministry with Sir Bryan O'Loughlen as Premier, Colonial Treasurer, and Attorney-General.

The French Compulsory Education Bill has been endangered by the passage in the Senate by a vote of 139 to 126, and in spite of M. Ferry's active opposition, of an amendment offered by M. Jules Simon, providing that elementary schoolmasters shall teach pupils their duties to God and their country. The Chamber will reject the amendment, but will be dissolved, probably, before the bill can pass.

The deaths are announced by cable of the Count Paul de Saint-Victor, journalist and author, and a candidate for the French Academy; M. Henri Sainte-Claire Deville, chemist and member of the Institut; A. D. Jessup, merchant, of this city (in London); Lord Hatherley (Sir William Page Wood), ex-Chancellor of

England under the Gladstone Government from 1868 to 1872; James Starley, the inventor of the modern bicycle and tricycle (at Coventry); Dr. Cumming, the Apocalypse interpreter; and Dr. Hillebrandt, the German explorer (at Madagascar), May 29.

What is called "the aggressive policy" of France in North Africa has been carried still further during the week, but from the disturbed condition of the district concerned it is difficult to get at precisely what is happening. Despatches announced early in the week that the French consul at Tripoli had begun "the same kind of agitation" which M. Roustan employed to bring about the Tunisian protectorate. The Porte had already sent troops and men-of-war thither, however, and their operations were severely censured by Gambetta's organs. "Strained relations" between France and the Porte were thought to have ensued, and a tiff between the Sultan and M. Tisot, the French ambassador at Constantinople, was reported. On the 5th inst. the French shelled Sfax, and speedily secured an unopposed landing for their troops. M. Roustan has advised the Government to prepare for a prolonged occupation of Sfax, Gabes, and probably the island of Djerba, points which dominate the Tripolitan frontier. The Mediterranean squadron of ten vessels left Toulon for Sfax Sunday, and the presence of a French iron-clad is said to have had a quieting effect on the excitement in Tripoli. When all these matters are settled, the *Débats* announces, Count de Lesseps "will complete in Algeria and Tunis the task commenced by politics and the army by creating an inland sea" between these countries and the Sahara. Whether the Panama and Corinth canals will have been dug meanwhile is not explained, but the quieting of Algeria seems a work likely to require some time and force. The insurrection there is reported to be increasing, and the mobilization of a large number of troops has been seriously considered.

It is reported from China that an expedition for the definite annexation of Anam, after the Tunisian manner, is planned by the French in Cochin-China, and that the whole country of Tonquin will be brought under French protection.

Of 307 newly-elected Bulgarian deputies 301 have accepted Prince Alexander's proposals. The late Ministers will be charged with malversation, the present Finance Minister having reported various deficits. Some notion of the value of the election is conveyed by the London *Daily News* correspondent, who reports that even Bulgarian newspapers published by American missionaries at Constantinople were prohibited.

The Oberammergau actors have proved a failure in secular drama, to their own exclusive surprise.

The mountaineers of the Bocche di Cattaro have rebelled against the Austrian conscription and set up a provisional government.

The Danish Folkething, having failed to pass the ordinary budget, has been dissolved by the King.

THE MORAL OF IT.

IT is very seldom that an event of any kind is accepted by the public as a lesson or source of instruction on any definite point to the degree to which the attempt on President Garfield's life has been. Hardly any one who has spoken or written about it has confined himself to a simple expression of horror or sympathy. Nearly every one finds a moral in it, and the moral is that our system of appointment to office must be changed. We do not think we have taken up a newspaper during the last ten days which has not in some manner made the crime the product of "the spoils system." There has hardly been an allusion to it in the pulpit which has not pointed to the spoils system as the *fons et origo mali*. In fact, the crime seems to have acted on public opinion very like a spark on a powder-magazine. It has fallen on a mass of popular indignation all ready to explode. It did not, we now plainly see, find the public ignorant or indifferent regarding the abuses of the civil service. The attempt on the President's life has not been treated as *proof* that there is something grievously wrong with our mode of appointing to office, because it is nothing of the kind. A crazy fellow might conceive himself aggrieved by the working of the best conceivable mode of appointment to office, and proceed to avenge himself by assassination. He might, for instance, think himself unjustly dismissed for gross incompetency or misconduct, or he might think that promotion had been withheld from him which he had fairly earned, or that in a competitive examination he had been unjustly marked. The act of a madman or a weak-minded man never proves anything except that the man is mad or weak-minded.

Guiteau's offence has, therefore, not been accepted as evidence of something which people doubted or did not know, but as a striking and dreadful illustration of the working of an evil of which they had known for a long time. The extraordinary unanimity of the expressions of opinion about the origin of the crime, and the wideness of the area over which they have been uttered, and the almost complete absence of any counter opinion, show very clearly how small and unimportant that portion of the public which is interested in the perpetuation of the spoils system really is. Nobody, so far as our observation has gone, has come forward in its defence. No man or newspaper has ventured to deny the connection of Guiteau's crime with the system. All the other inferences from it have been a good deal gainsaid; but nobody has risen up to maintain that as "it was the best civil service on this planet," it was absurd to condemn it because a man who had unsuccessfully tried to enter it had sought to avenge himself by an attempt on the President's life. Nor has any one come forward and declared that, inasmuch as it is "as good as the civil service of any European country," Guiteau's crime no more suggested the need of alteration in it than in that of Great Britain or France. Nor do any of the philosophers who used to declare that

the spoils system was a useful, original, and purely American system, peculiarly adapted to the needs of a democratic country, now proclaim that it would be as silly to propose changing it because a disappointed office-seeker had tried to murder the President, as it would be to propose abolishing universal suffrage because there were occasional frauds at the elections. These various classes of defenders of the spoils system undoubtedly exist: we have heard from them frequently within the last five years through one channel or another; but they are now silent. Not one of them has lifted up his voice to protest against the gross perversion of the popular indignation which must to them certainly seem involved in the use now made of Guiteau's crime by the civil-service reformers.

This shows two things: one is that they are conscious of their numerical weakness, and the other is that, though they love the spoils system as much as ever, they will never venture to defend it before an aroused and attentive public. Their speeches and articles on its behalf are all addressed to a public which they suppose to be apathetic or indifferent.

If we are right in assuming that Guiteau's crime has satisfied the American people not that the civil service needs reforming—for that they knew already—but that something must now be done to reform it, the question, "what they are going to do about it," is one that must by this time be suggesting itself to thousands. It is hardly possible that the excitement about the President's condition will be allowed to die out without doing something toward turning away the attention of the whole class to which Guiteau belongs—the class of shiftless, crack-brained adventurers—from the public service as a means of livelihood. It ought to be so organized and administered that the Guiteaus, when "down on their luck," or "clean broke," would no more think of a Government office as a last resource than of the pastorate of an up-town church. But no such change will be effected in it—no change of any kind will be effected in it—if the people content themselves with dolorous denunciation. We must have action that will result in legislation. Those, then, who are most impressed by the bearing of the Washington tragedy on the question of civil-service reform should, now that their minds are beginning to be relieved of anxiety about the President's condition, make action of some sort an expression of their thankfulness for his recovery. To prepare for action they must ask themselves what they seek; and when they have found out, they ought to seek it with all their might.

Two bills were introduced into the last Congress dealing with the whole question of appointments and removals from office and promotions in office, and with the assessments of officeholders. They were carefully drawn. No objection, so far as we know, has been made to their constitutionality or to their practicability. In fact, they have not been opposed by anybody in Congress, but they will never be passed as long as Congressmen do not believe that the public wants them passed. Probably

ninety-nine hundredths of those who during the past six weeks have been inveighing against the spoils system have no knowledge whatever either of this or of any other attempt to abolish the spoils system, and have never sought, and are not now seeking, any information on the subject. Had these rules been in force during the last year President Garfield would during the last four months have had all his time for the real duties of his office, as would the members of his Cabinet. The rows within the party about offices would never have occurred. There would have been no "Stalwarts" or "Half-Breeds," and no Guiteau. There would have been no deadlock at Albany. There would have been no Platt and no Conkling such as we now see them. There would have been none of the scandal and disgrace which the crime of July 2 has brought on popular government. The popular interest which has ever since the inauguration been mainly centred on a series of degrading personal quarrels would have been bestowed on the score of questions of the highest national interest which are now vainly awaiting solution.

THE FUND FOR MRS. GARFIELD.

THE profound sympathy universally felt for the President and his family makes any criticism of a movement to give that feeling a substantial expression seem at the first blush a little ungracious. Nevertheless, the suggestions as to the proposed fund for the benefit of Mrs. Garfield made in the letter, from a prominent member of the Chamber of Commerce, published in the *Evening Post* last Saturday, contain food for reflection on the part of the gentlemen engaged in promoting the subscription. As the writer says:

"Every man of generous feeling has had his emotions gratefully quickened by the movement started in the Chamber to raise a liberal fund to be given to the wife and children of the President of the United States under the impending danger which threatens them, and no one wishes to say a word that may tend to repress so benevolent a purpose."

But the movement, which appeared a natural and spontaneous outburst as long as the chances seemed to be that the President would die, begins to wear a somewhat different aspect now that his recovery has become probable. The correspondent suggests an objection to the proposed fund, derived from the constitutional prohibition of any increase of the President's salary during the period for which he was elected, and the denial to him of all right to receive "any other emolument from the United States or any of them." He points out that it was the intention of these clauses to secure the President from all sinister exterior influence (and, we may add, from the suspicion of any such influence), and asks whether we may not, under the effect of the generous impulse inspired by the calamity, and by the suffering of the President and his family, be in danger of violating at least the spirit of this law. He suggests that a private agreement ought to have been made between the donors of the money that, in case of a fatal

termination, the proposed sum should be given to the family of the President, and that this intention might have been communicated to him "without giving names that could embarrass him in the future, or impair his official or personal independence." But even this, he thinks, "might give the President serious trouble hereafter, and prove a curse rather than a blessing."

It is, in fact, clear that the President's recovery will make his relation to the fund a very peculiar and delicate one, and on many accounts it is for his interest and that of the public that this should be frankly discussed by the press in advance. In the event of the President's death the whole matter would become one exclusively of taste and sentiment. If Congress should neglect to make a suitable provision for the President's widow, there can be no doubt that a call for a popular subscription would be heartily responded to; and even if it should not neglect to do this, the question of making her a substantial gift, which, in our opinion, could not be too large, would be one entirely between the donors and herself. No public interests of any kind would be affected. The differences between this and the case of the President's recovery have seemed so obvious to one or two of the subscribers that they have made their subscriptions conditional upon his death. In case of his recovery it will, of course, be very difficult to distinguish between a gift to the President and a gift to the President's wife. The plan of putting the money in trust does not remove this difficulty. A substantial addition to the resources of the one is practically a substantial addition to the resources of the other.

The change in its form from a private to a national subscription can have little or no effect upon this. It necessarily remains, as it originated, a fund set on foot by a number of well-known capitalists. That these gentlemen are simply animated by a generous sympathy does not alter this fact; it is just this association that renders it the duty of the President's friends to point out the inferences that will be drawn from it hereafter. Among the subscribers are men interested in the promotion by legislation at Washington of private enterprises of all sorts. This legislation must come before the President for approval or disapproval, and it is of the utmost importance not merely that he should be subject to no private bias in favor of the promoters of such enterprises, but that he should not be open to any suspicion of such bias. The general sympathy with him in his present critical condition should not blind us to the fact that his acts will hereafter be criticised with all the fierceness and ingenuity that party spirit can supply, and that the acceptance of money by his wife at the hands of men who are knocking every year at the doors of Congress for favors will be a handle for his enemies which they will not neglect to use. Human nature being what it is, no matter how high the reputation of a President for integrity may be, it is impossible to prove to the satisfaction of one who doubts it that his signature or veto of a bill is unaf-

fectured by the recollection of a pecuniary benefit derived from its promoters; and it is this impossibility which made all the Presidents who had occupied the White House down to General Grant's time so sensitive on the subject of gifts. It is safe to say that the admirers and well-wishers of the President will do well to proceed very cautiously in the matter. While they can afford to disregard all criticism of their own motives in starting the subscription, they certainly cannot afford to disregard the criticisms to which the scheme, if carried out, is sure to subject the President. If he recovers, the necessity and duty of making a pecuniary provision for his family will not seem so obvious as it did when he appeared to be lying at the point of death, and the objections to such a provision by means of a fund such as is now proposed will seem every day more clear and distinct. It would be a very serious embarrassment to him.

END OF THE BI-METALLIC CONFERENCE.

THE Paris Monetary Conference has adjourned *sine die*. So far as accounts have yet reached us it came to no resolution even upon points of abstract doctrine, and was therefore more inconclusive than the Conference of 1878. The latter resolved that bi-metallism was a question for each nation or group of nations to decide for itself, according to its own circumstances. This formula was presented to the Convention by M. Léon Say on behalf of France, and it received the votes of all the countries represented except those of the United States. Two years signalized by bad harvests and the ravages of the phylloxera have caused a heavy drain of gold from France, and left her national bank with a glacier of silver growing on her hands, which had reached, at the latest returns, the sum of twelve hundred and forty millions of francs. The metallic reserve of the bank, which was two-thirds gold and one-third silver in 1878, is now one-third gold and two-thirds silver. Ordinarily the Bank of France holds more gold than the Bank of England and the Imperial Bank of Germany together. It now holds less than either. This important and threatening change has brought with it, if not a change of views on the part of French statesmen, an earnest desire to secure foreign help in dealing with the silver problem. To this is to be attributed the leading part taken by that country in calling the Conference of the present year.

The position of the United States as a holder of gold is much stronger than it was two years ago. If not the strongest of all nations in this regard, we are not much behind Great Britain, and our prospects are favorable for still further gains. We have nothing to fear from the course of international trade. The only danger confronting us arises from our own action in coining great quantities of silver which we do not want and cannot use. We joined France in calling the new Conference simply because we had "put our foot in it" two years ago, and were not willing even yet to acknowledge that

we had committed a blunder. Our representation in the Conference had much political and sentimental significance, but no financial aspect, except perhaps that, as we are a silver-producing country, we desire to sell our product at the best possible price. This latter phase of our situation has been somewhat exaggerated abroad. Although silver-mining is one of our national industries, it is not sufficiently important to account for our interest in bi-metallism. A few years ago, when we were in some business perplexity, we were seized with a rage for "cheap money" and made fools of ourselves in a rather conspicuous manner, and we are not willing to confess our error. We would rather pay two million dollars a month than do so.

It is very clear that England and Germany accepted the invitation to the Conference only to avoid the appearance of churlishness. Both governments caused it to be understood at the outset that they would not change their monetary standard, and that they would not send representatives if their presence should be understood as holding out any false hopes in that behalf. They were, however, willing to do some things and abstain from doing other things in the interest of silver—in a friendly way and as a matter of good-neighborhood. The minor governments and the non-specie-paying countries were present rather as spectators than as active participants. "Virtually the Conference consisted of France and the United States, the former having a real and the latter an imaginary interest in the question under consideration.

Nothing was accomplished by the sittings, except, perhaps, further to convince people of the futility of attempts to impart by joint resolution a higher value to substances than they actually possess. The Conference never reached the crucial difficulty of fixing a ratio for the universal coinage of the two metals. France with her ratio of $15\frac{1}{2}$, and the United States with their ratio of 16, never confronted each other on that issue, and never confronted the fact that the real ratio between silver and gold is 18 to 1, or thereabouts. The nearest approach to the consideration of this question is embodied in a paragraph of the joint declaration of the French and American delegates that any ratio now or lately in use by any commercial nation, if adopted by "an important group of states," could be maintained, and that the ratio of $15\frac{1}{2}$ would produce less disturbance in existing monetary systems than any other. This postulate a large and probably controlling portion of the civilized world deny *in toto*, and contend that no group of states, by mere governmental action, can make gold, silver, tin, or iron worth one cent more or less than it is worth.

The declaration of the French and American delegates, which is the sole net product of the Conference, sets forth in its first paragraph that "the depreciation and great fluctuations in the value of silver relatively to gold, which of late years have shown themselves and which continue to exist, have been and are injurious to commerce and general prosperity, and the

establishment and maintenance of a fixed relation of value between silver and gold would produce the most important benefits to the commerce of the world." This statement also is denied by most economists and is controverted by the experience of the greater portion of mankind. Taking our own experience as a test, what is there at the present time to indicate that commerce is injured or general prosperity impaired either by the fluctuations of silver or by any other known or unknown agency? All the commercial journals and commercial bodies testify that business is active and prosperous. All the immigrants from foreign countries find speedy and remunerative employment. One of our large corporations has been advertising lately for ten thousand laborers in Great Britain. It is evident that we must seek elsewhere for evidence to support the statement that commerce is in trouble by reason of the fluctuations in silver. What is true here is true also in Great Britain. The mischief exists only where silver is held in large quantities, and even in those countries it is not found universally. Late accounts from India report that the country is prosperous as compared with her condition during several preceding years. A good wheat and wine harvest would put France in a condition of renewed prosperity—if a country which is investing millions of dollars in Panama canals and other foreign enterprises can be said to be otherwise than prosperous.

The undertaking of the Bi-metallic Conference was purely quixotic, and it has ended as such undertakings usually do, with a flavor of ridicule cast upon the chief actors. Assembled together to relieve a suffering world, the world has been stolidly indifferent to its proceedings from the start, and now reads without a pang that nothing has been done. The declaration that commerce is depressed and prosperity is retarded for the want of bi-metallism must be taken as the apology of the delegates for coming together at all. A useful lesson has been imparted to this country, however, if we can humble ourselves sufficiently to take it in. This is the third effort and failure on our part to persuade the world to follow our example in the matter of coining silver—not of using it, for we do not do that, but of stamping it and hiding it away in underground receptacles for our own future perplexity. We have paid two million dollars per month for this diversion for about four years, latterly in the hope that other nations would join us and share the expense. That hope is now utterly dashed, for although the Conference makes the suggestion that something may be done next year, it is evident that the failure resulted from the nature of things and not from adventitious circumstances peculiar to the present year. Mr. Cernuschi cannot be more enthusiastic, or Mr. Horton more discursive, or Mr. Evarts more metaphysical and ornate in 1882 than now, while there is every reason to believe that England will be as unfeeling and Germany as disobliging next year as ever. Our future course as to silver must be taken with reference to our own conditions exclusively.

AN OPPORTUNITY FOR ANGLOMANIACS.

THE rumor that Mr. Oscar Wylde, the London *Æsthete*, is coming over here to lecture this autumn lends a new interest to the teachings and tendency of the remarkable school to which he belongs. *Punch* is not so generally read in this country that there is a wide familiarity in the United States with either Postlethwaite, Maudle, or Mr. Wylde himself; but there will be a considerable amount of curiosity as to the lecturer as well as to the subject which he will lecture upon. Anglomania has made rapid strides in "society" in the United States within the last few years; but our Anglomaniacs have thus far not been of the *æsthete* school. Their ingenuity has been chiefly devoted to the imitation in the New World of a number of English sports, and the development of an easy freedom in manners and conversation such as used to be considered peculiarly un-American. Like other reformers, they have exposed themselves to a great deal of ridicule, for in certain portions of their work they have allowed their zeal to outrun their discretion.

In the importation of sports, for example, they have neglected to observe certain differences of circumstances, customs, and social conditions between the two countries which, as innovators having social progress at heart, they should have studied more carefully. The attempt to introduce coaching here, for instance, though it cannot but have the approval of all who desire that the rapidly increasing rich and idle class should have harmless occupations provided for them whenever that is possible, has broken down, owing to the general absence of good roads. This difficulty was by far-sighted social observers foreseen, and it is a nearly insurmountable obstacle. An occasional "parade" and one irregularly sustained coach-route are the principal features of amateur coaching as exhibited in this city, and in contrast with London coaching it can hardly be called more than a sham sport as yet. Of fox-hunting, whether pursued with the aid of the anise-seed bag or even with prepared live foxes, the same must candidly be said. Long Island, where the sport is most actively pursued, is found to be an extremely "difficult country" to hunt, in more senses than one. Fox-hunting is based, of course, upon the right to trespass, which in England immemorial custom and the national love of the sport have created. But on Long Island there has been no such custom and no such love, and the dread of the pitchfork, the weapon which the Long Island farmer is known to resort to against mounted trespassers, introduces a novel element into the sport which robs it of a great part of its charm. The occasional introduction of "hunt-balls" and hunting costumes has not thus far relieved the sport of its air of "unveracity" in our atmosphere.

It is really in dress that the Anglomaniacs have had their greatest success; for as the anatomical structure of the American man is very similar to that of his English congener, and the necessity of wearing clothes is equally recognized in both countries, there is no reason why the manner and fashion in dress prevalent in England should not be generally introduced here, as, in fact, to a great extent it has been. The reformatory movement of the *æsthetes*, however, is of a very different character and purpose from any which Anglomania has had to work upon hitherto. The attempt to introduce English sports and English clothes and

manners have been attempts to introduce real things. The *æsthete*, however, is even in England an unreality. His object, as far as it can be understood and intelligibly expressed, is to substitute an internal standard of taste for all the external standards of life and conduct now generally in vogue. An *æsthete* is a person who pretends to derive the same moral satisfaction from a certain pattern or color in china that other people do from the contemplation of an heroic or virtuous action; who declines to have his hair cut by a barber because it is "part of himself"; with whom an ill-assorted marriage does not mean incompatibility of temper, but of complexion, and who orders a restaurant waiter to bring him, not roast-beef and potatoes, but the all-satisfying lily.

It is needless to say that this fantastic view of life is the product of a highly artificial condition of society; it is, in fact, so incredibly absurd that it is difficult to know whether it is a genuine natural growth, or whether it is not in great part a product of the very caricatures which seemed to satirize it. It is as far removed from the sphere of American life and manners as the *Macaroni* or *Merveilleuses* of the last century would be. A leading *æsthete* on the lecture platform in Chicago or Omaha would probably seem to the rationalistic Western mind a *lusus naturæ*. Whether he would at first, as has happened in the case of so many other reforms, be mobbed, no one can say. As a reformer he cannot but desire it, and the only way to find out is to make the experiment. While it will undoubtedly prove difficult to naturalize the principles of the *æsthete* here, Anglomaniacs ought not to neglect the new opportunity which is afforded them. In the case of fox-hunting and coaching the difficulties have been mainly external. The *æsthetes*, of course, have psychological obstacles to overcome. This type is absolutely unknown in this country, and the type cannot be produced without a previous diffusion of the principles of thought and feeling out of which it grows. If Mr. Wylde succeeds in developing an Anglomania of a new order—a mock *æsthetism* of the Postlethwaite and Maudle kind—he will put to the blush even the veteran Anglomaniacs who have been wasting their time in attempts to naturalize fox-hunting and coaching.

GAMBETTA'S CHECK.

PARIS, June 24, 1881.

THE rejection by the French Senate of the new electoral bill, passed by the Chamber of Deputies, is an event of unusual importance. This bill embodied the principle of what we call the *scrutin de liste*—that is to say, in the system advocated by the Chamber of Deputies each elector had to vote for all the deputies of his department, he had to make or choose a ticket of several names (five or six on the average); while under the present system he votes only for the deputy of the *arrondissement* (the *arrondissement* is a section of the department) in which he lives. It is clear that the *scrutin de liste* gives more importance to the wire-pullers, to the politicians who reside in the principal city of the department, and indirectly to the politicians of Paris who are in correspondence with them; while the *scrutin d'arrondissement* gives more importance to local influences. You must never lose sight of the fact that the peasants are by far the most numerous class of electors in France; they are the real motive power in the machinery of universal suffrage. It is always easy to foresee in what direction the efforts of the work-

ingmen of the cities will go; it is not so easy to prophesy what will be the vote of the peasantry. The peasants hold no meetings; they live on the soil; their instincts are deep and mysterious; they seem to be the instruments of an unknown fatality. In 1848 they voted as one man for Prince Louis Napoleon, when everybody expected that they would vote for General Cavaignac; in 1871 they elected a Chamber full of Monarchists, though the Republic had been proclaimed in Paris.

When the peasant has only one deputy to choose he is generally inclined to vote for the most important man of his district; his vote cannot be easily directed or controlled. When he has to make a ticket he votes in ignorance; he sees a name he likes on the list, and he gives the accompanying names the benefit of his indifference or his doubts. Some *big* name in each department acts like the little steamer which, on a river, drags a long series of heavy boats. Each party has a certain number of such steam-tugs, who are expected to transport a large fleet of heavy nullities. The present Chamber was elected under the system of the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, but in very peculiar circumstances. There was no hesitation, no choice, so to speak, for the Republican electors, after the dissolution of May 16. A compact was made in virtue of which the three hundred and sixty-three deputies who formed the majority of the Chamber dismissed by Marshal MacMahon were made the only candidates of the Republican party. As soon as M. Grévy became President of the Republic Gambetta was elected Speaker of the Chamber of Deputies, and he has had complete sway over it during the last few years. His influence, in fact, was so great that he became a sort of new power in the State; he could make and unmake cabinets, the ministers seemed to be his ministers, the administration was his administration. The President of the Republic presided over the Cabinet meetings, but Gambetta sat invisible beside him. It is strange that in such a state of things M. Gambetta should have been moved with a desire to alter the electoral law. Did he find the present Chamber too subservient, too mediocre, too incapable of originating great measures? He certainly cannot complain of the Chamber being unmanageable; he had but to speak and he was obeyed. Perhaps he thought that many of the men who had been elected in virtue of the compact of the 16th of May would not be returned; he feared a Chamber elected under purely local influences, without any crystallizing influence. His enemies say that he urged the "general ticket" because he himself could make it for all the departments, and so become a sort of Great Elector. His flatterers told him that his name at the head of any departmental ticket would guarantee the success of the whole ticket.

In the debates which took place in the Senate it was distinctly asserted that the new electoral law would give to an ambitious leader the means of making a sort of plébiscite. The Republican Senators asked themselves what would be the position of the President of the Republic if Gambetta were elected in thirty, in forty departments, and came back to the new Chamber surrounded by a court of deputies the greater part of whom would have owed their election to him. These fears may have been exaggerated. There is such a natural inclination in France towards a personal government that it would have been difficult for the most modest of men not to be somewhat carried away by the popularity which attended the President of the Cham-

ber of Deputies. His name was in everybody's mouth; his words were sent by the electric wire to every corner of the world. The reporters lived in his ante-rooms, waiting anxiously for the alms of some communication. Kings and princes were almost as anxious to see him. The Greek question arose from a few words which he exchanged at breakfast with King George. "Comment en un plomb vil l'or pur s'est-il changé?" How is it that in a few days all this has been changed? The journey to Cahors was the turning-point. Gambetta made a visit to his native town, less in the character of a private citizen than of the representative of a state. All the authorities came to salute him; the Minister of War ordered that two sentries should remain at the door of his hotel; the school-girls, dressed in white, came to offer him bouquets of flowers. There was a time when Gambetta would have laughed with his friends at such demonstrations; he may have done what he could to prevent them, but it is difficult, in an old centralized country where the ministers have an immense patronage, to prevent the outburst of calculated enthusiasm which begins with a cheer and ends with a petition. Gambetta thought that he had really made for himself a place in the hearts of the people. His southern nature does not abhor noisy demonstrations; he is not a puritan, and his sensational and emotional eloquence has finally alarmed the puritans of the Republican party—I mean men of the Laboulaye type, who would like the French Republic to resemble the American Republic, and to have as little resemblance as possible to the Directory and the Consulate of Napoleon.

The rejection of the new electoral law and of the *scrutin de liste* is a blow aimed directly at Gambetta; nobody denies it and everybody sees it. After the rejection of the *scrutin de liste* the friends of Gambetta proposed that the present Chamber should immediately cease its functions and that new elections should take place. The powers of the Chamber expire this year, and a general election must naturally take place in the autumn. The Chamber did not accept the proposition of an immediate dissolution, and decided by an immense majority that the elections should only take place at the natural end of the session. This was a new blow for Gambetta; he had not the Senate with him, and now his majority in the Chamber of Deputies abandoned him. This majority had voted for the general ticket only with much reluctance. The President of the Chamber had been obliged himself to canvass for this measure; he made many promises, he used his influence with many members individually. The revolt of the Senate gave heart to the most timid, and now Gambetta, though he remains in the chair, cannot be said to command any majority in the Chamber which has followed him so long and cheered him so often.

There never was a more striking illustration of the famous verse,

"La roche Tarpéienne est près du Capitole";

the changing character of popularity was, perhaps, never better illustrated. Gambetta will now be obliged, at the general election, to do like all the other deputies: he will have to choose an *arrondissement*—he has already chosen it. He has said that, whatever offers are made to him, he will remain faithful to his faithful Belleville; he has already gone there, and has visited a school and sat at a small banquet. He will certainly be re-elected, though the Radicals of Paris are making constant war upon him. Rochefort has undertaken to

ruin him in the eyes of the people; he will never forgive Gambetta the publication of a letter which he wrote after the Commune when he appeared before a council of war. How this letter, left with Rochefort's lawyer and addressed to M. Thiers, came into the hands of Gambetta, remains a mystery; but it appeared some time ago in the *République Française*, and Rochefort has declared war to the knife on Gambetta. The editor of the famous *Lanterne* seems to have now but a small following; still, he may be considered a dangerous adversary, as he uses that terrible arm of irony which often becomes fatal in France. He ridicules every day the President of the Chamber, and it is said that in France "le ridicule tue."

Gambetta, however, has great resources: his popularity with the most military part of the nation is still untouched; he is still considered by many as the personification of the national defence and of the future revenge; he has created the word "opportunism," which is a programme in itself, as it is the absence of any programme. Opportunism can bide its time, it can lie low, it can wait for better times, for a happy occasion; it is a sort of force in reserve, an accumulator of political strength. Those who consider the rôle of Gambetta as almost finished underrate too much his great elasticity of mind, his recuperative powers, the persistence of his views, hidden under a constant flow of easy eloquence. At any rate, his rôle must now become a little different from what it has been during the past four years. He is not yet an enemy of M. Grévy, but, in the eyes of M. Grévy's supporters, he is getting to be a rival.

ENGLAND'S OBLIGATIONS UNDER THE TURKISH CONVENTION.

LONDON, June 30, 1881.

It is a curious instance of the rapid oscillations of public interest in this country, and of the way in which Irish affairs have recently excluded all others, that during the six months of the present session we have had but one regular debate on the Eastern Question, which three years ago was almost the only subject people or Parliament talked about. Of course, if the difficulties of that question had passed away, and the sky were now free from clouds, it would be natural enough that nothing should be said about it. But the state of Turkey shows no signs of improvement. The Asiatic provinces, and especially Armenia; the European provinces, and especially Macedonia, are in a condition of permanent anarchy. None of the promised reforms have been carried out, or even begun; brigands, savage tribes, corrupt officials have it all their own way everywhere. In Constantinople itself, the emptiness of the public treasury and the dangers thence arising; the complaints of the army, which has received no pay for many months; the disorganization of the civil service, become constantly more serious. Such evils must, before long, result in the fall of the Turkish Empire; though whether that catastrophe will be brought about by an insurrection within or by the action of some of the neighboring Powers, it is at present impossible to predict. Such being the state of things, it is plain that England, both as being one of the Powers which signed the Treaty of Berlin and from the general interest which she has for the last century taken in the affairs of the East, will certainly be called upon, and probably at no distant date, to interpose; and it might, therefore, have been ex-

pected that she should keep a watchful eye on the progress of events, so as not to be taken by surprise when a crisis arrives. However, for the moment it is impossible to draw public attention to these matters, the Government might do almost what it pleased, might even withdraw altogether from diplomatic action in the East, without having anything worse to fear than the criticisms of a few political quidnuncs in Parliament and a stray journalist or two.

Under these circumstances the debate which took place in the House of Commons on Friday, the 24th, was a comparatively languid one, although the issues involved were of the highest moment. Some of your readers may remember that in June, 1878, just before the conclusion of the Treaty of Berlin, Lord Beaconsfield's Government (which was then in power) entered into a secret agreement with the Sultan, by which they bound England to defend his whole Asiatic dominion by force of arms in case it should be attacked by any foreign power. By the same instrument the Sultan assigned the island of Cyprus to England, to enable her the better to fulfil her engagement to defend his territories, and also undertook to introduce reforms in the administration of those Asiatic provinces. This was, of course, an engagement of a very bold and large character, involving for England the liability of protecting an immense frontier which it was easy for Russia to invade and very difficult for England, with her small army, to guard. The Liberal party, accordingly, at once protested against it, and Mr. Gladstone in particular denounced it with the utmost vehemence as "an insane covenant." He was then, however, in a minority in Parliament, so the Anglo-Turkish Convention, as it has since been usually called, was approved by the legislature. Even without such approval it would have been binding upon us, for by the constitution of England the sovereign still retains the power of concluding engagements with foreign states by her own sole authority. When the Liberals came into office they could not venture to repudiate this Convention, much as they professed to dislike it, and as a matter of law it is unquestionably binding upon us at this moment, although no action has been taken under it, except, of course, the handing over to us of Cyprus and its administration by Englishmen. The Sultan has not introduced any reforms into his Asiatic provinces, and the contingency of their being invaded by Russia has not yet occurred. But questions of much difficulty have arisen as to the true meaning and effect of the Convention. Is the English guaranty of the Sultan's frontier to be taken as conditional on his introducing the stipulated reforms, and, if so, within what time ought he to execute those reforms in order to entitle England to avail herself of their non-execution as a ground for retiring from her engagement? Moreover, since the occupation of Cyprus was granted to her for the purposes of the guaranty, is she not bound, if she withdraws from that guaranty, to withdraw from Cyprus also, and to hand it back to the Sultan? She would find it hard to recover from him any compensation for the improvements she has effected on the island; and, indeed, the idea of restoring it to Turkish rule, after having given the people a taste of better things, is treated here as quite inadmissible. Besides, although the Turks have, by their conduct during the last three years, shown that there is no chance of their making any reforms, it is always an unpleasant thing, even when

you have a technically sufficient ground, to repudiate a formal international engagement.

The object of the motion made in the House of Commons was to elicit from the Government some declaration of their intentions. It was easy for the mover, himself a Liberal of the Manchester school, to show the perplexities in which the Convention has involved us, and the extreme difficulty of fulfilling it. The representatives of the Opposition could not suggest any solution, although they endeavored to defend their conduct in concluding the Convention by pointing to the helplessness in which Turkey lay at the end of the Russian war. The Government repeated their original condemnation of the agreement, but declined to say what they would do if required to carry it out, hoping, no doubt, that the case would not arise, and that the progress of events would ultimately make it a dead letter. They stated that no communications had taken place respecting it with the Turkish Government since it was originally concluded; but they would not say that they either considered it already abrogated or that they would give notice to the Turks that they withdrew from it. It was pointed out, however, that there was one contingency under which the question might soon take a practical form. The condition of Armenia has been growing steadily worse. The famine which has been desolating that country during two years past has reduced the inhabitants to unparalleled misery. The outrages of the Kurdish robber tribes continue, and there is too much reason to think that the Turkish Government has used both the famine and the Kurds as means towards the extermination of the Christian inhabitants of the country, hoping that when oppression has further reduced their numbers their complaints will cease to be heard and the Armenian question disappear with the Armenians. In such a state of things an insurrection might naturally be expected, especially as there is a large Armenian population in the Asiatic provinces of Russia which sympathizes with its coreligionists under Turkish rule and would supply them with arms and leaders. An insurrection would probably be followed by massacres similar to those of 1876 in Bulgaria; and, as in the case of Bulgaria, the entrance of Russian troops might follow. Thus the case contemplated by the Anglo-Turkish Convention would arise. Russia would have invaded Asiatic Turkey, and England would have been forced either to recede from the terms of the Convention or else to resist Russia in a cause which the judgment and moral feeling of the people of England would condemn—not to say that the acquisition by Russia of fresh territories in Asia would re-awaken our old jealousy and alarms at the progress of that Power.

In reply to the appeals addressed to him on this point, Mr. Gladstone stated in a very emphatic manner that he regarded the Armenian question as one of the utmost importance, and that Lord Dufferin, who has now gone to Constantinople as English ambassador, has been instructed to press upon the Porte the duty of carrying out with the least possible delay the reforms in Armenia stipulated for by the sixty-first article of the Treaty of Berlin. I have thought it worth while to refer specially to this point, because many of your readers must be interested in the welfare of a country which has owed almost all such progress as it has made of late years to the exertions of American missionaries. They have not only formed a Protestant Armenian Church, which numbers some forty thousand members, but have promoted in many ways the intel-

lectual development of its people, establishing schools, and introducing among them the civilization and ideas of the West. It will be sad if the results of such efforts should be lost, but the prospect at present is far from cheering. England is the only European power which really cares for the Asiatic subjects of Turkey, and her regard for them is more of a philanthropic character than due to any definite material interest which she has in those regions. Germany, Austria, and France look upon Asia Minor and Armenia with distant indifference. Russia probably expects that the dissolution of the Turkish Empire will at some time or other throw them, or a large part of them, into her hands, and is, therefore, not much concerned to retard that dissolution or to remove the justifications for her own advance. However, it is something to know that the present English Government considers itself bound to urge on the action of the other Powers for the benefit of the Christians of the East, and this is the phase of the perpetual Eastern Question which will probably engage the European diplomatists at Constantinople for the next few months. Y.

THE NEW RÉGIME IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, JUNE 2, 1881.

A COUNTERPART of the form of government which the Egypt of to-day offers to the political observer is, I believe, nowhere to be met with in ancient or modern history. To that autocratic foreign rule—the rule of the Ptolemies, Arab Khalifs, Mamelukes, and Turkish Pashas—to which the fellah has been so irrevocably moulded, there has succeeded a nicely-adjusted, delicately-balanced machinery, the component parts of which are solely kept together by strong external pressure. This mechanism has been in operation for over two years, not long enough to furnish a thorough test, but still sufficient to permit conclusions to be drawn as to its immediate utility.

It is a notorious fact that the deposition of the ex-Khedive was directly brought about, not by England nor France, but by Germany, who interfered on the technical ground that her rights, established by the treaty creating the international tribunal, had been trespassed upon. Why Germany should have taken this step, which was at the time a complete surprise both for London and Paris, has never yet been explained. Her action may have arisen from Prince Bismarck's desire to egg on France to assume fresh Oriental responsibilities, an instance of which may to-day be seen in the occupation of Tunis, which in the event of a European war must neutralize at least two *corps d'armée* of the military strength of France. The fall of Ismail Pasha made European intervention a necessity. England was reluctant to act at all; yet she could not allow any other Power to assume a forcible solution of the Egyptian question. France, by threatening to act alone, compelled England to join her. Austria and Italy were only too eager to increase their powers already obtained by the treaty establishing the international tribunals. Hence England and France were pressed into an alliance to exclude the interference of other European Powers in Egyptian affairs. The outcome of this alliance is the present triumvirate, composed of the Khedive, the Council of Ministers, and the English and French Controllers. Besides their important administrative functions, the powers of the Controllers are very much the same as those which in England are wielded by

the House of Commons and by the public press. No measure of any importance can be passed until the Controllers have expressed their opinion upon it. They can recommend for appointment any person they please; they can suggest the creation of any office that seems to them useful; they can press for the dismissal of any official or the abolition of any post. Ministers and all public officials of every rank are bound to furnish the Controllers with all documents the latter think fit to require. The Minister of Finance is bound to furnish them weekly with a statement of receipts and expenditure. Other administrations must furnish the same every month. The Controllers can only be removed from their posts by their own Governments, but Egypt has the privilege of paying their salaries. Greater power could hardly have been devised short of military occupation.

The Anglo-French protectorate requires for its successful working a perfect accord of persons as well as of principles. M. de Blignières and Mr. Colvin—the French and English Controllers—have always been able to compromise any differences of opinion, and to act together as one man. Mr. Colvin and the British consul-general also pull well together, but this is not the case with M. de Blignières and the French consul-general. During the past two years France has been represented in Egypt by no less than five consuls-general, and yet both M. Waddington and M. Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire have steadily maintained the Anglo-French alliance and the Control system. The difficulty has been caused by the excessive *individuality* of the French representatives. They have been all able men; but, influenced by Chauvinism, they have each striven to identify themselves with French predominance, and hence have produced temporary confusion only remedied by their recall.

Under the Control system Egyptian finance has been put on a tolerably sure footing. The bondholders feel sure of their coupons, and the price of the stock makes them equally sure of their capital. The land tax in the old days was paid at odd times, whenever the Government wanted money, and the fellahs had no security that they would not have to pay just as often as they were known to have any money. Now the fellah pays his tax, and no more than his tax, by monthly instalments, the amount of which is regulated by the importance and season of the crops. Formerly the tax-gatherers were paid merely nominal salaries, which had to be made up by a percentage on the collection. They are now paid adequately and regularly, and inspectors are appointed to check error and fraud. The collection of taxes in kind has been abolished, and greater facility is given for the legal recovery of the arrears of taxation.

The public debt of Egypt amounts to-day to \$450,000,000. The revenue of Egypt is barely \$42,500,000, and out of this \$20,000,000 has to be paid away to the creditors, and \$3,500,000 goes to the Sultan. Thus a comparatively small sum is left for other purposes. Nevertheless, Egypt seems to prosper in spite of her heavy burdens, and last year she not only paid what she was bound to pay, but she also paid \$1,500,000 in *amortissement*. The improved credit has caused universal hopefulness as to the future of Egypt. Capital is pouring into the country; and a great number of companies for sugar-refining, irrigation, land-cultivation, jute-growing, and building purposes have been established. The money rate of interest has fallen from 12 per cent. to about 5 per cent., and land which sold three years ago for \$50 per acre is now sought

in vain for \$150. During three years the value of the unified-debt bonds alone has increased by \$75,000,000; and during the year 1880 the value of the consolidated-debt bonds rose from \$330,000,000 to \$400,000,000.

The fiscal and financial reforms have been most thoroughly and energetically carried out, but beyond this very little has been accomplished. Commissions have been appointed to introduce reforms in the departments of War and Public Instruction. The ex-Khedive left behind him in Egypt an army of nearly 100,000 men. Under the new régime this force was reduced to about 6,000 men; but provision for the supernumerary officers, who consider that they have a vested right to receive bed and board from the Government, still continues to be a serious embarrassment for the authorities. The only present use for an Egyptian army is to create internal commotions and émeutes. The men are of fine physique, well behaved, and uncomplaining. The men from Nubia and the Sudan are warlike, but the pure Egyptians have all the elements of good soldiers *except personal courage*. The experience of the past six thousand years seems to have conclusively proved that the Egyptians are utterly incapable of self-government. They have been successively ruled by Persians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and Turks; and if during the present summer any "national feeling" or "constitutional party" raises its head, with or without the aid of the discontented discharged officers, your readers may feel assured that such a state of affairs is a mere phantasmagoria, created by the wire-pulling of some unspeakable Turk or intriguing European.

The educational department in Egypt has suffered more on account of the financial disorder from which we are now emerging than has any other branch of the public service. Public instruction in Egypt has an importance which can scarcely be overrated, for the administration and judicial reforms already instituted must depend for their ultimate success upon the public schools of the land. Egypt, in proportion to her annual expenses, allows less money to public instruction than does any European country except Turkey and Greece. After deducting the amount yearly set apart for the payment of the public debt, Egypt, for every 1,000 francs of the general expenses of the state, only spends 15 francs for purposes of education, while the United States spends 257 francs. Only \$400,000 is allowed for public instruction, while nearly \$2,000,000 is allowed to the War Department. The number of schools in Egypt is 5,370. If the native population be reckoned at 5,500,000, the result is that there is only one school for 1,000 inhabitants. The total number of pupils is supposed to be 137,553—that is, an average of 25 for each school, or 1 pupil for 40 inhabitants. If the number of male children of school-going age be reckoned at 334,000, it will be seen that 41 per cent. receive some rudiments of instruction, while 59 per cent. are totally deprived of any instruction whatever. It should, however, be remembered that of these 137,500 pupils only 4,000 receive such instruction as is imparted by the primary schools in the United States, and the remainder frequent schools which were established by the Fatemite khalfs, and whose condition has remained unchanged ever since. Verses of the Koran are learnt by heart, and there the instruction ends. A permanent *Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique* has, however, been established (upon which, by the way, are two Americans), and re-

forms of a serious nature are about to be undertaken.

The International Commission for Judicial Reform has not been able to accomplish much of anything, owing to the Chauvinism of the ex-consul-general of France, whose strong individuality prevented the proper working of the Control System and threw its nicely-adjusted machinery out of gear. The commission began their sittings last December. They have now adjourned for the summer vacation, and will commence work again in November. There are also two United States representatives upon this Commission—Mr. Consul-General Farman and Mr. Batcheller, Judge of the Egyptian Tribunal of First Instance. The English representatives are striving to introduce, as far as possible, into Egypt the principles of the commercial law of England. The existing system is slavishly copied from the French and Italian codes. The commercial law of the United States and England is the best that the world has produced, and yet the Egyptian courts only know a code compiled in France many years ago, and admitted by French critics themselves to be open to the charge of over-rigidity. England's demand is, to say the least, reasonable, for the majority of cases tried are of a commercial nature, and of the total commerce of Egypt over sixty-one per cent. is with England. Efforts have also been made to establish English as one of the official languages of the tribunals; at present the pleadings, language spoken, and documentary evidence must be in Arabic, French, or Italian.

To sum up, the Dual Control System has worked better than was at first anticipated. All reform necessarily begins with the finances, and this part of the programme has already been brought to a most happy conclusion. Whether equal success shall crown the efforts of the Controllers in other and more difficult tasks, time alone can determine. Under the "pasha system" the best-intentioned labors of individuals were utterly unavailing. The lamentable and ludicrous failure of some forty American officers to "regenerate" Egypt and develop her resources is conspicuously shown by a book recently published by Colonel Dye, who was himself a prominent member of that quixotic band. Things are now otherwise. The real power of the Egyptian Government is no longer with the Khedive nor his ministers, but is with the Controllers, just as the real power of the British Government is with the House of Commons. The "pasha system" is reduced to a minimum; and, in spite of some errors of judgment and misapprehension of facts on the part of the Controllers, I believe that Egypt is better governed to-day than she ever has been since the days of the Pharaohs. Turkish rule has been replaced by European rule as represented by the Control System; but should this Control System break down, international jealousy would leave no alternative but a relapse to the Turkish pashas. Our representatives in Egypt need to be reminded that *any* European rule is better than the best Turkish rule. Our interests in Egypt are at present purely sentimental ones, but as far as they go they coincide with the interests of England—that is, we wish to see our language and our system of law prevail as against those of Latin countries. No matter what the personal prejudices of our representatives in Egypt may be—be those representatives Greek or Ottoman subjects, as at present, or otherwise—they should bear in mind that the true interest of the United States is to *help* rather than *oppose* England.

in Egyptian affairs; and that if any European Power is to predominate in the Nile valley it is on the whole better for the United States that that Power should be England rather than France, and either or both rather than the Turkish pashas.

To descend from the regions of *la haute politique*, it may interest many of your readers to learn that M. Maspero, the new Director of the Boulak Museum, leaves by the same steamer which carries this letter for France, where he will publish the texts of the five recently-opened pyramids of the Fifth and Sixth dynasties. M. Maspero tells me that these texts will "revolutionize" many preconceived ideas on the ancient Egyptian religion. By means of pyramids opened last April at Saccara, M. Maspero has found that not only pyramids, but groups of pyramids, in the vast fields of Saccara, Dashur, and Ghizeh, are placed at certain mathematically determined relative positions and distances apart. The pyramid fields represent a vast historical map of Egypt chronologically arranged. This symmetrical arrangement enables the student at once to determine the dynasty of any pyramid as soon as its position be known, and to determine its position if its dynasty be known. This latter is of great importance, for it is often impossible to distinguish some of the older pyramids from mere mastaba, or from natural irregularities or undulations of the desert. If M. Maspero wishes to find a pyramid of a dynasty, he has only to take a donkey ride with a prismatic compass and the key to the "system" which has been disclosed by the newly opened pyramids. Next winter will probably mark an epoch in Egyptology, for M. Maspero intends to open as quickly as possible all the pyramids at Saccara—some sixty in number—and publish their texts. It is to be hoped that he will come across some pyramid that has not been already opened by the monks of the Roman period or by the Bedouin robbers. All the pyramids hitherto opened in Egypt had been previously ransacked by these ruthless destroyers.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME AGAINST THE PRESIDENT.
TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In last week's *Nation* it was mentioned without comment that special legislation, looking towards the better protection of the life of the President, had been proposed; since then Mr. Conkling has written a letter calling the attention of the Attorney-General to the subject. The amendment to the "Criminal Code," as Mr. Conkling suggests, is virtually an amendment to our Constitution, and is, we apprehend, in opposition to its spirit and contrary to the fundamental principles of our Republic. Mr. Conkling mentions with dissatisfaction that "our Criminal Code treats premeditated homicide in all cases alike, irrespective of the victim." That this is true has been the great boast of the American nation; she alone of all the governments of the world has recognized as a self-evident truth "that all men are created equal," and has hitherto shown in theory and in practice that the life of the toiling peasant who lives in the humblest hut among her mountains is as well protected by her laws as that of the man who is great because of wealth, of high position, or of any other of the circumstances of life. This is what it is proposed to amend; and in order to do so a first principle must be destroyed!

The framers of our Constitution had before

them the laws of other countries, making an attempt upon the life of the ruler treason, and consequently punishing it more severely than an attack upon a subject, and yet they refused to embody such a provision in our Constitution, and declare positively that "treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort." Madison, in advertent to this point, commends the Convention for inserting this definition of treason and for their limiting it, and recognizes the peculiar danger to our Government in having it in any wise extended. Nor can we suppose that by calling this crime something else than treason we shall thus escape doing violence to the Constitution.

Ideal Justice is represented as being blindfolded, so that in civil matters she may not see either the plaintiff or defendant, and in criminal prosecutions may know no difference between persons because of their position—even though the victim be a murdered President himself.

It seems to us, therefore, that this special legislation is objectionable because it is unconstitutional, because it ill accords with justice; and furthermore it is a dangerous precedent to establish, and will be, we can with tolerable safety say, of no practical value. This present proposal may be innocent enough, yet we know not to what ends ambition may use the principle upon which the law would be founded, nor where special legislation, the precedent once established, will stop. The years may be many before any ill effect is seen, but it is a step in the wrong direction, and followed by others we may find one day that in thus fortifying our chief Executive we have unwittingly

"———put a sting in him,
That at his will he may do danger with."

Special legislation would not accomplish the end desired, we think, and the "high executive officers" (Mr. Conkling uses the plural number) would be no safer with it than without it. When Dives wished a special messenger to be sent to his brethren he was told: "They have Moses and the prophets." When he again urged his plea he was answered: "If they hear not Moses and the prophets neither will they be persuaded though one rose from the dead." And so we can say that would-be assassins have the ordinary laws and the ordinary penalties; and if they fear not them neither will they fear though the laws of Russia be enacted in this land. An assassin is desperate and reckless, and takes his life in his hand when he goes to commit the deed. What does he care for the severity of penalties?

What, then, is necessary? *Let the cause be removed*; and in this Mr. Conkling can make himself useful without troubling himself to take up the rôle of legislator again. Let the fierce malignity of faction give place to a dignified and reasonable opposition, and weak-minded persons, admirers of his, will not be inspired to undertake the work of an assassin; and let our legislature turn their attention to remodelling the system of Government patronage, which otherwise may be as fruitful a source of danger to the Executive as it has hitherto been of impurity to politics.—I am your obedient servant,
S. B. W.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, Va., July 8.

THE GIFT TO THE PRESIDENT'S WIFE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last clause of Section ix. of Article I.

of the Constitution of the United States provides that—

"No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever from any king, prince, or foreign state."

Without examining the debates on this clause of the Constitution, it may be inferred that the fathers of the Republic, in the early days of its poverty and simplicity, desired to guard the officials of the nation from any form of bribery or corruption from wealthy foreign powers. The danger which now threatens the country is not from gifts from without, but gifts from within. The present of \$250,000 which the wealthy citizens of New York proposed to raise for Mrs. Garfield was no doubt dictated by high motives of patriotism as a touching tribute of the sympathy felt by the persons who subscribed; but are our foremost citizens and soldiers such paupers that they have to live off of the overflowing coffers of the rich? If the President died it is reasonable to suppose that Congress would provide for his family by paying them his salary in full for the remainder of his official term, which would be a sum of money that would raise them far above want, and above many families moving in well-to-do circles of society, and could be received by them with eminent propriety.

The system of railroad corporations presenting members of Congress and members of State legislatures with passes is one of the simplest forms of corruption nowadays, for even such a gratuity entails to a certain extent the good-will of the receiver. The recipient of any present, even as harmless and disinterested as a milch cow in time of sickness, must feel under certain obligations to the donor.

"Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes."

—Yours truly,
BALTIMORE, MD., July 11, 1881.
TALBOT J. ALBERT.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS announce that Mr. Sidney Lanier will add to his juvenile series of the 'Boy's Froissart' and 'Boy's King Arthur' a Welsh companion to the latter volume—the 'Boy's Mabinogion.'—The thirteenth volume of Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics for English Readers," 'Madame de Sévigné,' by Miss Thackeray, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.—'Random Rambles,' by Louise Chandler Moulton (Boston: Roberts Brothers), is certainly, as a prefatory note declares, nothing "so formidable or so dignified as a book of travels," but is rather a series of newspaper letters of a light and gossip character about different places and social experiences abroad. They make very agreeable "railway reading," and probably the author would agree with the critic who should question the necessity of giving them book-form for any loftier purpose.—'A Journal of a Farmer's Daughter' (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons) is precisely what would be expected of a prose work with this title by Miss Elaine Goodale. Incidents of farm-life are described with affectionate detail and a manner at times a little sentimental, but in the main in excellent taste. Of course, to give this sort of thing interest, experience of life in general, wide reading, and a distinct seasoning of humor are imperatively required; and what made the Goodale young ladies remarkable was not the

individual character of their qualities but the unusually early development of them. It seems possible now that they reached maturity at once.—Part 3 of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) maintains the beauty and interest of the work in a great variety of elegant colored plates. The one landscape represents the curiously terraced and formerly cultivated hills to the south of Ancon, protecting the roadstead. There are sections of graves of many types; mummy bales unwrapped by degrees to the squatting body within; ornamented skulls and limbs—a ghastly array; charming specimens of painted cotton and other stuffs, also headgear with feathered ornaments of great delicacy; a sunken *chicha* vessel *in situ* (heart-shaped earthenware some five feet high); finally, a highly artistic vase, with an enlargement of the decoration on the belly to show the costumes of the Inca period. The figures resemble wrangling knaves of clubs from different packs, wearing helmets, ponchos, and pouches with straps, and carrying shields and lances.—We have received from Clark & Maynard a series of English "School Classics," edited abroad, and answering well by their cheap and handy form the purposes of flexible instruction.—The next two numbers of the *Library Journal* will be mainly devoted to a bibliography of the pre-Columbian discovery of America, by P. B. Watson.—No. 10 of the Harvard "Bibliographical Contributions" is Mr. Justin Winsor's "Halliwelliana," largely but by no means exclusively a list of publications relating to Shakspeare.—The *American Architect* has undertaken the useful task of establishing an architectural intelligence office for draughtsmen and employers.—The Supplement to Stratmann's 'Dictionary of the English Language of the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th Centuries,' 3d ed., is now obtainable of the author at 6, Karlsplatz, Krefeld, Germany, for 3s. 6d.—Nos. 3 and 4 of the current *L'Art de la Mode* (J. W. Bouton) are chiefly remarkable for the illustrated articles on French women artists and the Salon of 1881.

—With singular unanimity the reports of all our libraries for the year 1880 show a falling-off in circulation. Not one, so far as we can remember, can boast of an increase. Sometimes the loss is confined to fiction, as in the library of the Odd Fellows' Association at San Francisco; sometimes it is evenly distributed through all the classes, as at the Peabody Institute at Baltimore. Naturally the minds of librarians are exercised to account for the change, which with the present ideas about circulation is felt to be somewhat disappointing. Library committees had for years regarded with much complacency the steady increase in the number of their readers—a steadiness which seemed to show that the sudden leap taken by the lists of library card-holders in 1873 was not due merely to the panic; and now they cannot see the process reversed without regret, and some anxiety lest city governments which have been cutting down appropriations even below the limit at which efficiency is possible, because times were bad and the people could not afford a library, may cut them down still lower because times are good and the people do not need a library. For the main reason of the decline in circulation is undoubtedly that business has revived. To some their new work is too interesting to allow a thought for anything else; with others it takes up all the time which, when out of work, they tried to while away with reading; others are too tired after their day's work for anything

but a newspaper. For it ought not to be forgotten (and yet it is continually overlooked by critics on the supply of books at public libraries) that, to those who are accustomed to study, the reading of very simple books demands serious effort and causes a mental strain to which they are not equal, or at any rate not prone, after ten or twelve hours' muscular exertion, or when subject to the effect of some of the less laborious but more harassing occupations. These are not the only causes of the decline in reading. Plenty of work gives more money to spend in other kinds of amusement; those who want to read buy their books in the Franklin Square, or the Seaside, or some other of the cheap collections, instead of waiting with problematical success till the work they want shall be "in" at the public library; many of the purchasing committees have been intentionally diminishing the supply of fiction; the old novels as they disappear have not been replaced; fewer copies of new ones have been bought, and the selection has been more careful; on account of diminished appropriations fewer books of all sorts have been purchased, and the attendance has not been so good; finally, 1880 was the Presidential year, and though there was the least possible excitement, there was enough to have some slight effect. We do not think that the present tendency will continue long. Business will not be less absorbing, or work less tiring; but, after a time, the people may feel strongly the need of some counterpoise; the very changeableness which leads them to desert the libraries now may lead them back there. If the present phenomenon meant that we are to cease to be a reading people, it would indeed be worthy of serious consideration; if, on the other hand, it only shows a temporary eddy in the current—if it points in some classes to a greater attention to art, in others to a growing inclination toward out-of-door amusements; if it means that our people are buying the books which they read; and if, to some extent, it means that they are reading books which demand more time to be read profitably—then certainly it is no evil.

—The position occupied by the family in the modern world presents many points of interest to science; and anthropologists will therefore not need to have their attention called to the approaching "Reunion of the Palmer Family," which is to take place at Stonington next month, and to which General Grant has received an invitation. The letter sent to him calls his attention to the fact that he is one of the descendants of Walter Palmer, who was one of the "first settlers" at Stonington; that his co-descendants number "many thousands," scattered "from Maine to California"; that they propose to have a "Palmer reunion" on the 10th and 11th of August at Stonington; that the ex-President is therefore specially invited to allow a thousand or more "Palmers" on those days to pay their respects to him as a kinsman; that the palace-car "Palmer" will be placed at his disposal for the occasion; and that "a solicitous and appreciative array" of his co-descendants are longing to have him join them on that day in "the social and fraternal festivities of a real Anglo-American reunion." The invitation bears the well-known Palmer motto: *Palmarum qui meruit ferat*. Communal reunions of this kind are peculiar, we believe, to the United States, and have become of late years a noticeable feature of social life here. In older countries, where the family exists as a sort of private corporation, such meetings of the entire body of the de-

scendants of a common ancestor are unknown, and would probably be considered undesirable, as calculated to bring together in an enforced and therefore unpleasant intercourse people widely separated by birth, wealth, social position, and breeding. It might, perhaps, also be urged that these reunions would be chiefly useful and profitable to such members of the family as had been unsuccessful in their struggle with the world, and needed external support and recognition, and would therefore be likely to "run" the reunion in their own interest. None of these objections—to judge by the growing popularity of the custom—seem to be applicable to the circumstances of this country, and such reunions afford interesting proof of the survival of a primitive sentiment which carries us back to the times when the Aryan or Pelasgian ancestors of "the Palmers" and other families gathered together not once in two hundred years, but three times a day, for purposes of commensal enjoyment. Thus far on all like occasions perfect harmony has prevailed, and the rigid exclusion of "politics" has greatly tended to promote this end. General Grant will, we presume, recollect that he is invited simply as a co-descendant "Palmer," and refrain from saying anything of a political nature calculated to eclipse the gayety of the reunion, or to stir up passions which, even in the most closely united families, often produce such unhappy consequences.

—The Albany *Law Journal* and Judge Countryman have been carrying on an ethical controversy, more curious than edifying, we fear, to the laity, on the subject of taking cases on "speculation." The judge says that the practice is perfectly right, and even praiseworthy; that poor suitors, if they could make no arrangements to retain counsel out of the proceeds of the suit, would often find themselves unable to prosecute their rights, and that such arrangements are sanctioned by the courts. The *Law Journal*, on the other hand, strongly reprobates this view; insists that, though the courts may tolerate the practice, that does not settle the matter, since many things are tolerated in courts—such as the use of decoys and informers, pleas of infancy, usury, etc.—which no one thinks are in themselves fine or laudable. But, at the same time, it admits that cases must occasionally be taken on "speculation," and states the difference between the judge and itself to be that "we would take just as few cases of this kind as possible, he would get just as many of them as he could." If this could be taken as a fair statement of the position of the two disputants, we should say that the *Law Journal* was undoubtedly right. The strong feeling which still exists among conservative members of the bar on the subject grows out of the dangerous tendency of the practice, and this is not affected by the fact that now and then it may be for the interest of litigants to resort to it. In new countries, and in countries where the bar has long ceased to be a close corporation, and law is carried on like any other business, the inherited tradition with regard to taking cases on "speculation" is pretty sure to be supplanted in a measure by the feeling that such a practice is often for the mutual advantage of lawyer and client. The story of the eminent Western lawyer who, on being asked to what branches of the profession he had chiefly devoted himself, replied, "ChamPERTY and MAINTENANCE," illustrates a condition of professional sentiment which it would still hardly be possible to imagine existing in New York, but toward which some years ago the bar seemed to be making rapid

progress. Until very recently, will-contests on a speculative basis were positively encouraged by a statute (now, we believe, repealed) permitting large allowances out of the estate to the unsuccessful party's counsel, and it was out of the practice founded upon this that the unscrupulous rapacity and ferocity that used to distinguish such contests in this city chiefly grew.

—The evil tendency of speculative lawsuits is reason enough for discouraging the practice wherever it can be done; but the question of how far it can be done is very like that other question of legal ethics which every few years or so comes up for discussion—how far a lawyer may go in defending a client. Many moralists, from the time of Dr. Johnson down, have undertaken to settle this, but with so little success that Lord Brougham's suggestion, that when a lawyer undertakes his client's case his duty is to throw overboard all moral principles, is still regarded in many quarters as being the prevailing professional view of the subject. The question is one of those which cannot be decided one way or the other abstractly. It is necessary to know the facts in each particular case before deciding whether a breach of professional ethics has been committed; but it is certainly safe to agree with the *Law Journal* that any one who tries to get as many "speculative" cases as he can will not earn the approval of the conservative part of the bar.

—The statistics of the cotton crop in 1879 have been published in outline by the Census Office, accompanied by brief notes regarding the condition of the culture of that staple, by Prof. E. W. Hilgard, formerly of the Louisiana State University. The following table, condensed from the *Bulletin*, presents an abstract of most of the important points:

States in order of production in 1880.	Acres, 1880.	Bales, 1880.	Bales per acre.	Per cent. 1879 to 1880.	Ratio of increase between population and cotton.
Mississippi.....	3,092,720	955,608	0.46	69.2	1 to 1.89
Georgia.....	2,615,608	813,965	0.31	71.7	1 to 2.39
Texas.....	2,108,136	801,000	0.37	128.5	1 to 1.36
Alabama.....	2,329,577	699,576	0.30	62.9	1 to 2.36
Arkansas.....	1,049,701	606,980	0.58	144.8	1 to 2.21
South Carolina.....	1,364,249	522,546	0.38	132.6	1 to 3.23
Louisiana.....	861,862	606,704	0.70	44.4	1 to 1.52
North Carolina.....	892,982	379,510	0.43	108.7	1 to 5.48
Tennessee.....	722,501	330,624	0.46	81.8	1 to 3.62
Florida.....	245,595	14,997	0.22	38.2	1 to 0.90
Missouri.....	34,711	10,733	0.30	1,483.7	1 to 57.07
Indian Territory.....	34,030	17,000	0.49
Virginia.....	24,000	11,000	0.46	5,019.0	1 to 241.51
Kentucky.....	2,667	1,367	0.51	26.6	1 to 1.67
Total.....	14,428,879	5,730,968	0.40	89.7	1 to 2.63

The principal points brought out by a study of the above table are as follows: The production of cotton has nearly doubled during the decade; its increase has outstripped the increase of population, in the cotton States proper, in a ratio approaching that of three to one; the highest specific increase has taken place in the Atlantic States, where the average product per acre has become nearly equal to that of Mississippi. This is due to better tillage and the use of manures. An "area of low production," due to soil-exhaustion, is moving westward, and is now central in Alabama and Florida. Farther westward, in Louisiana, Mississippi, and Arkansas, where the natural fertility of the soil is not yet exhausted, the production is greater. The lesson here indicated, that it *does* pay to manure, is one that cannot be too strongly impressed upon the cotton-planters of the Gulf States.

—Mississippi is, *par excellence*, a cotton State. While only about one-fourth of its product is raised in the Yazoo bottom, which is popularly regarded

as the greatest cotton region of the country, one-half is grown on the table-land bordering the Mississippi bluffs and the prairie belts. The remainder is scattered over the sandy pine region. Its high rank as a cotton State is due to the natural fertility of the soil and the fact that cotton-planting is almost the sole industry of the inhabitants. In Georgia, which ranks next, the case is quite different. The soil is much less fertile, and its large product is due in part to its greater area and population, but largely to the extensive use of fertilizers and to careful tillage. Some portions of Alabama possess soils originally extremely rich, and the State would naturally be expected to make even a better showing than it does. The reason which Prof. Hilgard assigns for its comparatively small product per acre is that the natural fertility of its soils has been largely abstracted, and has not been returned by manuring. The case is similar in the northern part of Florida, to which part of the State cotton culture is at present confined. In Tennessee the cultivation of cotton is mainly confined to the western part between the Mississippi and Tennessee rivers. Here the soil is extremely well adapted to the crop and the yield is large. The greater portion of the cotton of Arkansas comes from the eastern and southern counties, where the majority of the land is alluvial. It appears that the alluvial regions of Arkansas and Louisiana produce about twice as much cotton per acre as the uplands. The coast belt of Louisiana is given over to the culture of sugar cane, little or no cotton being raised there. About two-thirds of the crop of the State is raised in the alluvial regions, the remainder being produced upon the uplands. In Texas the season appears to have been unfavorable, the supply of rain not having been sufficient, which may explain the low average yield. More than half the crop was produced in the northeastern section. The coast counties produced but little, and on the south and west the Nueces River practically limited its culture. In the Carolinas the culture of the staple has been much extended and improved during the past decade, particularly by the application of manures to the worn-out soils, so that the average production is now as great as for the new rich soils of Mississippi. The cotton region of Missouri is limited to the cotton-lands in the extreme southeastern corner, where, apparently, the soils are of great fertility, as shown by the high product per acre. Nearly all the cotton raised in Kentucky comes from the extreme southwest corner adjacent to Tennessee and the Mississippi River.

—The spread of malaria in New England and other parts of the country where it has been hitherto unknown is a subject which possesses much public interest, especially at this time of year, when thousands of persons are leaving the cities to search for places where they can be absolutely guaranteed against all danger of this kind during the summer. A letter recently written by President Chadbourne, of Williams College, shows that very little progress has as yet been made in solving the mystery. Dr. Chadbourne refers to the common opinion that malaria is the result of vegetable decomposition, especially the decomposition produced by stirring up soils rich in organic materials, admits that when a lecturer on the subject in New England he shared this opinion, but states that he has since had occasion to modify his views, owing to his "observations in Wisconsin and the Rocky Mountains," and "the increased

prevalence of the disease in New England in places where the conditions are quite different from those formerly considered essential for the production of the miasm." He adds that "all the facts now known" cannot be explained consistently with any theory yet advanced. Malaria, it is true, abounds in wet places, but so it also does in places which are dry. It is found in valleys and it is found on the tops of mountains. It appears where it has before been unknown, "without any change of conditions that can be seen." It seems also in New England to "move on" from year to year, like the pear-blight, the potato-rot, the epizootic, or the Texan cattle-fever. As to vegetable decomposition, malaria is to be found in the Rocky Mountains "where the few streams flowing from melting snow are as pure as our New England trout-books, while most of the soil is poor in organic matter." He points out that water of itself does not necessarily favor decomposition, which is produced by alternations of wet and dry, or mere dampness. Of the increased prevalence of malaria in New England, and "what seems to be its yearly progress eastward and northward," he thinks no satisfactory explanation has been brought forward, and all that can be done at present is to collect the facts carefully, in the hope that we may be able to arrive at a solution of the mystery hereafter.

—Mr. Hamerton's art periodical, the *Portfolio* (Bouton), has lately been giving some specially good examples of native English work with the etching-needle, and thus assuming a really important place as patron of an art in which the British school is peculiarly fitted to excel. We do not say that a designer like Mr. Jacob Hood, who has found in the *Portfolio* a free outlet for his sketches, is a better artist than the ordinary throng who illustrate the *Graphic* with their woodcuts; but he finds in etchings, as ordinarily printed, a better expression of color, through the two mediums of a tinted ground of fine quality and of retoussage. He is therefore tempted to seek higher refinements of technic and dig deeper into the sources of ability that are in him than he would do if drawing for cuts where the whites between the lines are all alike. This artist's Lancashire series has many elements of power: his glass-blowing sketch in the June number shows a fine mastery over difficult light; while, in May, his canal scene was an able reminiscence of Decamps's "Hulage"; and, in March, his cotton-mill showed types of character worthy of Fildes. It is a curious and promising experiment, this encouragement of sketchers, who in the usual course of things would be offering their studies to the illustrated newspapers, to pour the contents of their albums upon etching-plates, and bite them out with acid; the process is not necessarily harder than boxwood drawing, while the stimulus to good work is everywhere greater. Mr. Hamerton keeps a monitor always running by the side of these ambitious novices, in the form of a specimen of what the great men of the past have really and practically achieved; these examples or paradigms, repeated with confounding accuracy by the French process of Amand Durand, are never without a sharp lesson, whether for modern practitioners or modern spectators. From Rembrandt's "Burgomaster Six," in the June number, the contemporary etcher can try to learn the judicious use of mystery; from Lucas van Leyden's "Abraham with the Angels," in April, the defining and almost architectural strength of precision. The editor's personal opinions are always valuable

from their catholicity and repose, and the articles signed by him entirely outweigh the collection of others differently originated; his definition of "style," however, in the last number introduces a new and misleading shade into art nomenclature. Style, by a useful ellipsis, now means noble or achieved style, and to define it is to investigate the elements of nobility and supremacy; to represent style as merely idiosyncrasy, and illustrate it by Rubens or Hogarth, is to confuse language and degrade terminology.

—*L'Art* (Paris: J. Rouam; New York: J. W. Bouton) opens its twenty-fourth quarterly volume with a striking selection from the illustrations to the "Tile Club" papers, a little less delicately printed than in the habitual style of *Scribner's*, but gaining some lustre from the advantages of ample margins and tinted paper. The critical text by J. Comyns Carr is timid and indefinite, declining to enter far into the merits of close-line cutting as practised by the modern Americans, but plucking up courage to say that the engravers succeed in reproducing almost every effect which is expressed by the various kinds of art. The etchings of the volume include many test-works. Rajon tries his lance with Waltner in copying Gainsborough's portrait of Master Buttall, known as the Blue Boy. The sense of clearness and color is very perfect, and the triumph over Waltner's larger plate is manifest. Borrowings from the catalogue of the late Wilson sale are: "The Sleeping Servant," etched by Courtry, after Van der Meer of Delft, a specimen in which the singular purity of interior light in a shaded room is caught with the highest felicity; A. Maas's "Infant Eating a Waffle," etched by Milius with much spirit; Holbein's "Bishop Gardiner," very minutely copied by Gaujean, and Diaz's "Under the Trees," a difficult work about half done, by Lalauze. Rembrandt's "Man-at-Arms," by Leenhoff, is heavy with characteristic color and impasto, and his "Crucifixion," from the late San Donato collection, is copied by Gauchereel so as to give a strange and dreamy light of eclipse suitable to the subject and the master. The kneeling donataire and his family of an altarpiece by Sir Anthony More—the artist who was disgraced by Philip II. for daubing the royal hand with carmine—are reproduced with painful and demonstrative fidelity in the largest etching introduced. The details of the Château of Montal, lately picked to pieces and carried stone by stone to Paris, are represented in an interesting series of illustrations, and the lost genius of Jacquemart is perpetuated in some of his sketches, among them a wonderful crayon drawing of a crystal flagon, and a photograph-like sketch of the "Road to Mentone," singular for its impression of near hills, made to look nearer by the sudden shading of a darkening cloud. The publication continues to be the best repository of modern etching extant, and the most valuable art periodical ever produced.

—King George of Greece has recently signed a concession giving permission to General Türr to cut a canal through the Isthmus of Corinth. The work will be undertaken by a company established under the patronage of the indefatigable M. de Lesseps, who, it seems, has long had his eye upon the Isthmus of Corinth as affording him another opportunity of gratifying his passion for great canal enterprises. The company will begin work upon the canal in the spring of 1882, and expects to finish it in five years. M. Violet d'Aoust, who took part in the French expedition of 1826 which

was sent to assist in expelling Ibrahim Pasha from the Morea during the Greek War of Independence, and who became at that time very much interested in this canal project, has just read a paper before the Geographical Society of Paris giving an account of the previous attempts to make the canal. A canal across the Isthmus of Corinth was a pet scheme of Demetrius Poliorcetes; Julius Caesar, Caligula, and Nero all wished to undertake it. In the Middle Ages the Venetians hoped by piercing the isthmus to secure a quicker passage to Syria and the East. The canal is, in conception at least, an old one; but it has remained for modern engineering to make it an accomplished fact. The isthmus of Corinth is about nine miles in width, and the expense of building the canal is estimated at about \$12,600,000. The question is where the ships which by passing through the canal are going to make it a profitable undertaking, are coming from. Ships plying between the Adriatic and the Eastern ports situated north of Smyrna would save from about eight to twelve hours by passing through the canal. Ships plying between other ports west of the Grecian peninsula and the shores of Asia Minor would not save enough time to make it worth their while to submit to the canal toll. It is, therefore, extremely improbable that the Corinthian canal can be made a profitable enterprise. However this may be, the undertaking will be watched with considerable interest, both from the historical character of the ground and from the fact that interest in the canal question has been aroused of late in consequence of the success of the Suez Canal and the scheme for cutting the Isthmus of Panama.

—The dialect of the Abruzzi has hitherto been almost completely neglected. No dictionary of it exists, and Dr. Gennaro Finamore, in order to render accessible to others the texts he proposes to publish, was obliged to begin his labors with the compilation of a vocabulary, 'Vocabolario dell' Uso Abruzzese' (Lanciano, 1880). A rapid examination of the grammar and phonology of the dialect is followed by the vocabulary, filling over one hundred and eighty octavo pages, and supplemented by a list of proper names and a selection of the principal etymologies previously given. The literary portion of the work consists of proverbs and popular songs, with parallels from the rest of Italy. The collector intends to issue the popular tales separately, and we trust he may receive sufficient encouragement to continue his arduous labors in a sparsely-worked field. Before long there will be little popular literature left to collect in Italy.

JEFFERSON DAVIS AND THE CONFEDERACY.—II.

The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government.

By Jefferson Davis. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 707, 803.

EXCEPT in the chapter devoted to the finances of the Confederate Government Mr. Davis gives us very little information about its civil affairs. It is well known that the government founded upon the ultra doctrine of State rights felt obliged to resort to absolute centralization as a matter of military necessity. When every able-bodied man was by one legislative act enrolled in the Confederate army, and not only the physicians and mechanics had to be "detailed" by army orders, or "furloughed" to serve the absolute necessities of local communities, but the very officers of state

were only exempted by similar exception under Federal law, the autonomy of the separate States was, of course, annihilated. That this, in fact, led to great dissatisfaction and caused serious dissensions and troubles is also generally believed. We can understand that Mr. Davis should avoid this subject, and strive to leave the impression that within the Confederate lines all was harmonious devotion to one settled purpose; but too much is known to make it possible to ignore the facts without making the silence itself more significant than speech. The volumes before us are certainly not the history of the Confederacy in this respect.

In what we are told of military and naval operations there are some very interesting passages, though there is very little proportion of parts. It is made apparent that immediately after the first battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, Mr. Davis and the two leading officers on that field became estranged, and complete confidence was never re-established. We read between the lines that friends of General Beauregard in the Confederate Congress represented the President as jealous of his renown, and showed the usual tendency of men in war-time to exalt a successful general above the civil power. Mr. Davis thought, and with appearance of reason, that Beauregard was more than willing to have it understood that he would have entered Washington triumphantly had he not been held back by the President. The language of formal courtesy in their correspondence does not conceal the fact that Mr. Davis regarded the general's conduct as dishonorable, and formed a resolution, to which he adhered, to give Beauregard as little actual power and responsibility in military affairs as possible. That officer was too well backed by political friends to make it quite practicable even for the President of the Confederacy to ignore him, but his commands were mostly administrative, and the commander-in-chief at Richmond evidently looked with a severely critical eye at his conduct when, by the death of Sidney Johnston, he was temporarily left in actual command of an army.

A similar coldness grew up between Davis and General Joseph E. Johnston, but no personal cause of complaint is indicated. It would seem that General Johnston did not communicate as freely and confidentially with the Executive as the latter deemed due to his position and his own military knowledge and experience. Mr. Davis was himself educated at West Point, and had held a commission for some years in the Army. He had served as colonel of a Mississippi regiment in the Mexican War, as Secretary of War under President Pierce, and as chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs in the Senate. He tells us that his own wish had been to be the actual general in command of the Confederate army, rather than the titular commander-in-chief as President. In this condition of things there was a natural tendency to misunderstanding with the generals at the head of armies. They would object to a too minute enquiry into and criticism of their plans and purposes, and would wish for more freedom than would, perhaps, be accorded. On the other part, the President would chafe at any reticence, and be likely to assume that no plan existed if it was not fully confided to him. Officers in the field would attribute publicity of what ought to be secret to the disposition of a political officer to be careless in his confidences. Something of this sort seems to have occurred, and the relations between Mr.

Davis and General J. E. Johnston evidently became stiff and unsympathetic in the first year of the war. General Gustavus W. Smith seems to have been involved in the same distrust by reason of his connection with Generals Johnston and Beauregard, and in this way may possibly be explained what was often a subject of enquiry among officers of our Army, viz., why General Smith played no more prominent rôle in the war. He was one of those officers who resigned to enter the Confederate service, and concerning whom expectation was high.

The references to General J. E. Johnston in Mr. Davis's book seem more plainly tinged with prejudice than his treatment of any other officer. It is impossible to read the narrative without feeling that Johnston's wound at Seven Pines only gave a desired opportunity of relieving him of the command in Virginia. When Mr. Davis comes to tell the story of the Atlanta campaign the reader may look in vain for any indication of serious fighting whilst Johnston was in command. Whoever may form his opinion of that campaign from this book must necessarily believe that Johnston retreated without any collision with our forces except trifling skirmishing, unless it were at New Hope Church. Officers on the side of the Union do not so understand that history. At Tunnel Hill and before Dalton there was severe fighting. Resaca was an important battle. After Resaca nearly every day had its engagement. At Kennesaw Mountain the casualties counted by thousands, and every foot of ground from Pumpkin Vine Creek to Marietta had been won only by fighting. When, therefore, Mr. Davis sums it up by saying (vol. ii. 555): "Thus, from Dalton to Resaca, from Resaca to Adairsville, from Adairsville to Alatoona, from Alatoona to Kennesaw, from Kennesaw to the Chattahoochee, and then to Atlanta, retreat followed retreat during seventy-four days of anxious hope and bitter disappointment, until at last the Army of Tennessee fell back within the fortifications of Atlanta," he is grievously unjust to his subordinate by the complete omission to describe the resistance that was made. One is tempted to contrast this silence with his full description of the defence of a petty fort at another place by a single company of soldiers, where he finds room even for the complete list of the names of the men in the ranks. In Gen. Johnston's case Mr. Davis will be justly judged by the application of the maxim *suppressio veri, suggestio falsi*.

In the description of the seven days' fight before Richmond Mr. Davis writes as an eye-witness, and intimates that he accompanied and assisted General Lee. This is the most valuable part of the military narrative. In other places he has accepted as indubitable the most extravagant claims put forth in Confederate reports, and pays no attention to subsequent criticism or to the facts presented from our own side. There is no pretence of summing up the evidence in a thorough manner, and, with the exception mentioned, the reader will look in vain for any new light upon the military history of the war, save in a few points where controversy had arisen between the Confederate President and his army commanders. His friendship for A. S. Johnston was of long standing and no doubt sincere, and for him and for General Lee his praise is unstinted, and the more noticeable by reason of the contrast with his tone toward J. E. Johnston and Beauregard. He puts upon Hood the responsibility for the great disasters of the Franklin and Nashville campaign, whilst praising

him for his courage, energy, and devotion. Subordinates are generally spoken of with warm appreciation, and political differences with Gen. Longstreet have not prevented him from speaking with admiration of that officer's calm intrepidity and great abilities as a corps commander.

When Mr. Davis alludes to Northern officers his tone is similar to that which he systematically uses in regard to Northern statesmen, and, indeed, the Northern people. It is so exact a reproduction of the well-known "plantation style" in vogue among Southern Congressmen before the war that one can hardly repress a smile at seeing how perfectly he has preserved the old fashion. The effect is much like that produced by the appearance in public of an antiquated garb, well preserved, which some one long out of society wears with an air of thinking it is still the *ton*. By far the larger part of the people who were lately in deadly strife with each other have by this time learned that men on the opposite sides of Mason and Dixon's line are not greatly different. The honorable and the knavish, the merciful and the cruel, the refined and the coarse, are not separated by a geographical division; but Mr. Davis has not yet learned this, and in his book the old illusion reappears that civilization or humanity is hardly to be looked for north of the Ohio. General Sherman has distinctly stated in his memoirs not only that he did not direct the burning of Columbia in South Carolina, but that he ordered the protection of the town and the putting out of the cotton-fires, which were in fact burning when the Federal troops entered the city. There might be room for debate over the fact of obedience to these orders, but none for disputing the truth of the statement that they were given. When Mr. Davis, therefore, treats the matter as if so explicit a statement from such a man had no important weight, he will find himself judged in the opinion of men who know the world, everywhere, as being guilty of a very offensive disregard of the *convenances* of life, which will seem greatest to those who are most familiar with what courtesy and refinement are among people of eminence.

The orders in regard to the inhabitants which were issued by General Pope on assuming the command of the Army of Virginia are admitted to have been unexecuted, yet Mr. Davis returns to them again and again as the proof of the barbarity of the Union Army. His method of dealing with them is a fair sample of the candor with which he treats such subjects. He said in a letter of instructions to General Lee, dated July 31, 1862: "The general order issued by Major-General Pope on the 23d of July, the day after the signing of the cartel, directs the murder of our peaceful inhabitants as spies, if found quietly tilling their farms in his rear, even outside of his lines" (vol. ii. 316). This might pass for the sensational exaggeration of facts in time of war, intended to key up the flagging zeal of his people, were it not quoted in full after twenty years as a true statement "of the atrocities which he (Pope) threatened to perpetrate upon our defenceless citizens." What, then, was the order which is thus travestied? It was that, in consequence of the "bushwhacking" and systematic spying which was constantly going on and was notorious, an oath of allegiance and security for its observance should be required of those who desired to remain at home, in rear of our army, and pursue their ordinary avocations: "Those who refuse shall be conducted south beyond the extreme pickets of the army, and be notified that if found again anywhere within our lines or at any point in the rear

they will be considered spies and subjected to the extreme rigor of the military law." We will not discuss the policy of the order or the feasibility of enforcing it. Mr. Davis does not pretend that an execution took place under it. Our question is simply as to the fairness of his statement of its contents. When men considered dangerous had been sent beyond the lines with notification that they would be considered spies if again found within them, the case is one clearly within the ordinary power and practice of military commanders within the theatre of operations. Harsh it may be, but war is harsh. To represent this as the "murder of peaceful inhabitants found quietly tilling their farms," is so exactly the contrary of the fact that it was properly ranked, at the time, among the unscrupulous methods by which the Southern Government sought to prevent the growth of feelings in favor of peace; and to repeat it now is to show a significant absence of the essential qualities of a historian. Extravagance generally defeats itself, and the oft-repeated declaration that the conduct of the Northern troops was that of "barbarians," exceeding the wickedness of Alva in the Netherlands or Wallenstein in Germany, and the like, passes for mere sound and fury. A fair examination of facts in detail would show that no war has ever been waged with more humanity and less cruelty. To any one who followed in the track of military operations from Würth to Sedan and to Paris, or in the more recent campaign in Turkey, Mr. Davis's assertions will seem so reckless as to lose all character except that of rhetorical flourish.

To the younger men of the South, who have learned to rejoice at the extinction of slavery, and who see that the hire of free laborers is more profitable as well as more humane than slavery, Mr. Davis's apotheosis of the obsolete wrong and folly will be curious reading.

"Generally," he says, "they [the bondmen of the South] were born the slaves of barbarian masters, untaught in all the useful arts and occupations, reared in heathen darkness and sold by heathen masters. They were transferred to shores enlightened by the rays of Christianity. There, put to servitude, they were trained in the gentle arts of peace and order and civilization; they increased from a few unprofitable savages to millions of efficient Christian laborers. Their servile instincts rendered them contented with their lot, and their patient toil blessed the land of their abode with unmeasured riches. . . . Never was there happier dependence of labor and capital on each other. The tempter came, like the serpent in Eden, and decoyed them with the magic word of 'freedom.'"

He who can speak thus of the disgrace to civilization which no government of Europe or America now pretends to uphold (Spain and Brazil having entered upon the process of emancipation) is so far behind his time that his opinions will have no weight with any who have learned to take satisfaction in being abreast with the world's progress. What he says will be regarded only as the echo of a former period of illusion and of ignorance, now so far away in the swift current of later events that his words have as little relation to the present as those of the sleepers of Ephesus awaking in those slower times after centuries of oblivion. For his own sake we could wish that his book showed some appreciation of the real meaning of the great crisis in which he was so prominent for a time, and of the better future which awaits the whole country, South and North, now that the only cause of strife has been abolished. It would be far happier for him if he could grasp the truth that, in the Providential development of human institutions, the

great civil war in our country was a purifying storm, terrific in its phenomena, but ensuring a purer air and a better climate for moral and political health. Then he could understand that a man like Lincoln could sternly employ war measures in the service of freedom, and that a people jealous of their liberties could bow to military rule for a while and for the sake of great results, and yet resume their personal independence when the exigency was over. All this he confesses himself incapable of learning, and has taken infinite pains to prove that he must end as he began—the narrow advocate of a false system which for a century barred the path of progress appointed for America.

JOHN DE WITT.

History of the Administration of John De Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland. By James Geddes. Vol. i. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

A PERIOD of thirty years lies between the fall of Olden Barneveldt, Grand Pensionary of Holland, in his struggle against the encroachments and designs of the House of Orange, and the beginning of the leadership of John de Witt, who, in early manhood, avenged the blood of the hoary Olden by bringing about the abolition of the stadtholdership, but, finally, like him, fell a victim to the Orange party. The intervening period is that of the Thirty Years' War, and embraces, in the history of the United Provinces, the last years of the career of Maurice of Nassau and the stadtholdership of his brother and successor, Frederic Henry—a time of vigorous contests with Spain by land and sea, which secured independence and maritime power, and doomed the political foes of the warlike stadtholders to silence or useless opposition. The general peace of 1648, following closely upon the death of Frederic Henry, opened a new era of Dutch politics, and John de Witt, even before he was chosen Grand Pensionary of Holland, became the direct successor of Barneveldt in leading statesmanship. His English biographer is thus, in a measure, the continuator of the political history of the Dutch Republic, as concluded by Motley with the life of Barneveldt. The war period of 1618-1648 forms a gap between the two biographical histories, but the severance is not complete; and could the American writer see the work of his life thus continued by Mr. Geddes, he would surely rejoice at the thoroughness and ability with which the Englishman has applied himself to his task, though he might view with displeasure his lack of enthusiasm for his subject, and the coldness both of his judgment and diction.

Mr. Geddes himself seems to have felt that he was presenting to the English public comparatively dry and unattractive narratives. He rather modestly says in his preface: "The period comprehended in the following book is not a heroic period, and John de Witt is in no sense a hero. His age has little in common with the noble epoch described with so much graphic force by Mr. Motley, and in studying it we are moving in altogether a lower world of human interest, passion, duty, and activity." What made it the more difficult for him to create a picture both faithful and stirring was "the extreme difficulty, and the ever-recurring impossibility, of getting at the precise measure of De Witt's personal work and influence." The Grand Pensionary's public history lies entombed, beneath mountains of documents, in numberless archives—national, provincial, municipal, and pri-

vate. "The lifetime of half a dozen men would not suffice to exhaust these, and, until they are sifted and made public, anything like a final history of this period, or a final life of De Witt, is impossible. The man De Witt, as he lived and moved, we do not expect ever to see much of. His contemporaries did not write memoirs, and the social, non-political, non-official side of him—the human side of him, in short—we have no hope of ever discovering." This is expressed still more strongly elsewhere, in reference to a special period in De Witt's life, when he was equally young and prominent:

"The man and his doings, the real biography and life of him, at this time are buried in thick darkness. To get at the man as he lived and walked and worked in that Hague life of his is an impossibility. To ascertain such a thing as how he clothed or fed himself is a vain endeavor; to discover that he relished good beer and drank French wine is, in the barren wilderness, like finding a treasure. What we know of him, in his actual, practical doings, has all to be painfully pieced together out of mountains of letters, printed and unprinted; and when the patchwork is done we find that hardly a lineament of the man and his work has been set forth. We have no Boswell, or homely Dutch gossip, to light up his figure for us; and his letters, while throwing no inconsiderable light on the history of the Republic, throw little upon himself. There is scarcely one single reference to his own personal pursuits or tastes. Even to his father and brother there is the stiffest, stateliest reserve. His letters are the mere notes of a chronicler. He is the baldest, the most meagre, though he is also a clear enough, annalist."

It is by a careful examination of these letters—of which the unprinted fill a large section of the Record Office in the Hague—and of the letters addressed to De Witt that the author, enlightened also by documents in the State Records of England and the unpublished correspondence of the French ambassadors, has been enabled to form an estimate of the great Dutch statesman's real and personal achievement in the Republic, to exhibit the sphere, the scope, and the aims of his activity, and to pass judgment on its methods and character. Thus the book before us is more than a history of an administration, of a period, though it is mainly that, as its title correctly indicates. And both the period and its leading statesman—though neither be heroic compared with the time and the men that brought forth the Dutch Republic—are interesting enough to students of history, and especially to those to whom the various phases of Dutch federal and state life, in alternating ascendancy, present instructive analogies to the more recent history of their own country. Parallels between the internal contests of the United Provinces and those of the United States can easily be drawn, though we must never forget that in the United Provinces State sovereignty meant oligarchy, and Federal power the sway of the house of Orange.

Mr. Geddes very impartially sums up the great questions underlying De Witt's political activity, the methods which he applied to his work, and the results obtained. The principles of autonomy in various degrees for which he contended were not established by De Witt. He found them at work around him, confirmed their supremacy, and secured for them a long triumph. "What he did was done with great talent, singular fertility of resource, unshrinking boldness, iron inflexibility, and marvellous reticence; that is, the *manner* of doing the thing was admirable." He moved on the very edge of statesmanlike integrity in working for his cause; though punctiliously honest, strong,

and proud, he intrigued, tricked, and deceived for it: was it, at least, the best of causes? The answer is: "We think it was a crime against the future to resplit this little territory into seven cantonal atoms after the work of fusion among them had begun, and to bequeath to posterity perpetually enduring legacies of provincial jealousies and strife." The smaller these cantons were the more needful was real union; the more so as "Jesuit-ridden Spain," which held Brabant and Flanders, and "land-hungry France, which lay beyond, were ever ready to foment internal discords, and rend for their own objects the little confederation into hostile camps." And it was only through the House of Orange that unity, harmony, power, and security could be created and maintained. For this unity, with its natural results, not wise and unselfish but "blind and passionate strivings" were active, and against these De Witt was laboriously fighting. The tide of centuries, which had been creating nations everywhere in Europe, "he was sweeping out with his little broom. His aim was to prop up tiny autonomies, each flaring its parchment in the face of the other, . . . and in the eyes of all Europe." It is "pitiful to contemplate him toiling with all his keen ingenuity, and sharp legal processes of intellect and cunning, to invest every town with inviolable sovereign rights; nay, not so much the town as the small clique of leading families who held the monopoly of administration, looked scornfully down upon the people, and fattened themselves upon the communal revenues. This surely was poor work, even taking it at its best." That it yet agrees with a public character on which there is hardly a blemish lies chiefly in the circumstance that the "House of Orange itself had become false to its traditions, gone a royal marriage-hunting, and had been selling the people for that wretched end. And, further, he was not constructing a new political edifice; he had to deal with one whose foundations lay deeply bedded in an immemorial past. . . . Dutch life and institutions were not plastic." To work a change meant to surrender the provinces to "an ignorant and Orange-worshipping populace," who would have instantly enthroned the dreaded house with rapturous acclaim. De Witt could not but prefer the old order of things, the predominance of Holland—his own province—and the safety of republican institutions under his own virtuous leadership.

OUTWORN MODES OF PUNISHMENT.

Punishments in the Olden Time. By William Andrews, F.R.H.S. London: W. Stewart & Co. 1881.

IT cannot be said that a spirit of humanity tempered conspicuously the wisdom with which so many are wont to credit our progenitors. In bygone centuries much the same disparity no doubt obtained between the high and the low, intellectually and as to material well-being, that is now observable. Yet for a long time the cruelty, even in its grossest phases, of our forefathers seems to have been largely irrespective of social position. Gentle and simple, in past ages, were, in many essentials, alike barbarians. To pass from generalities to particulars, the extent to which, abstraction made of racking, thumbscrewing, and kindred enormities, the hideous practice of legalized torture in its various forms has prevailed in England, is brought into painful relief by Mr. Andrews's instructive little monograph.

Ludicrous though its associations are, the ducking stool was an instrument worthy of very savages; and we hope there is warrant for the author's belief that few offenders have been committed to it since the Elizabethan period. The amiable Vincent Bourne sang, to be sure:

"Astride it set but a Xanthippe,
Then twice or thrice virago dip ye;
And not a lambkin on the lee,
Will leave the stream more meek than she";

and he ought to have blushed at his singing. Besides being employed for the correction of scolds and other unquiet women, it is on record that it was occasionally occupied by brewers of undrinkable beer, bakers of bad bread, and millers who pilfered corn. That its use sometimes proved fatal is not to be wondered at. In 1731 its remedial efficacy was tried, by order of the Mayor of Nottingham, on a courtesan of that place, with the result that she died soon afterward. According to an old chap-book, of uncertain date, another unfortunate woman at Ratcliff Highway was dipped until, on being released from durance, life was found to be extinct. As has been attested by a person still living, Jenny Pipes, in 1809, was carried about Leominster on a ducking-stool, and then immersed in the Lug, near Kenwater Bridge, at the instance of the magistrates. Sarah Leeke, of the same town, would have been served similarly, in 1817, if the river had not just then been too low, luckily for her. Mr. Andrews gives several engravings of ducking-stools, specimens of which are still preserved, as at Sandwich, Leominster, Ipswich, Scarborough, and Leicester. There was one, it is said, at Retford as early as 1279.

Ducking-stools may or may not have been a flower of British inventiveness, but one must needs feel gratified by the probability that the brank was borrowed from the Continent. Though, apparently, this imported abomination first won favor in Scotland, the native land of the boot, it was destined to become disgracefully popular in England. Mr. Llewellynn Jewitt's description of this atrocious piece of mechanism merits transcription, for all its faults of style:

"It consisted of a kind of crown, or framework of iron, which was locked upon the head, and was armed in front with a gag, a plate, or a sharp-cutting knife or point, which was placed in the poor woman's mouth, so as to prevent her moving her tongue; or was so placed that if she moved it, or attempted to speak, the tongue was cut in a most frightful manner. With this cage upon her head, and with the gag firmly pressed and locked against her tongue, the miserable creature, whose sole offence, perhaps, was that she had raised her voice in defence of her social rights against a brutal and besotted husband, or had spoken honest truth of some one high in office in the town, she [*sic*] was paraded through the streets, led by a chain held in the hands of the bellman, the beadle, or the constable; or, chained to the pillory, the whipping-post, or market cross, she was subjected to every conceivable insult and degradation, without even the power left her of asking for mercy, or of promising amendment for the future; and, when the punishment was over, she was turned out from the Town Hall or other place where the brutal punishment had been inflicted, maimed, disfigured, faint, and degraded, to be the subject of comment and jeering amongst her neighbors, and to be reviled by her persecutors."

Among the twelve patterns of branks, differing more or less in construction, depicted in the pages before us, those represented at pages 46 and 48, truly fiendish devices, could hardly have been applied without causing extreme suffering. The second of these, which was still to be seen a few years ago at Forfar, was stamped with the date of

1661. If reserved for a single class of victims, still that class, it should be borne in mind, was deplorably numerous in the benighted days of the seventeenth-century superstition. "The object aimed at, in applying so dreadful a gag to those who were condemned to the stake as guilty of witchcraft and dealing with the devil, was not so much the purposed cruelty which its use necessarily involved as to prevent the supposed possessors of such unearthly gifts from pronouncing the potent formula by means of which it was implicitly believed they could transform themselves at will to other shapes, or transport themselves where they pleased, and thus effectually outwit their tormentors."

The brank, it is stated, was publicly used at Chester, by order of the mayor and justices of that city, as late as 1824. On the assertion that "the use of the instrument was not sanctioned by law, but was altogether illegal," it is obvious to observe that immemorial and uncontested custom, existent at any given time, is, in a practical aspect, as good as undistinguishable from what is expressly authorized by legislation.

The cucking-stool or cuckstool, the tumbrell, gumstool or scolding cart, the drunkard's cloak and riding the stang, we can only indicate as among the topics which Mr. Andrews includes in the scope of his interesting treatise. It will be news to many to learn, as we do from his pages, that Cardinal Wolsey, in his younger days, when rector of Lymington, was placed in the stocks for tippling by Sir Amias Poulett. He tells also of a man who, being condemned to stand in a certain pillory, proved too heavy for its fragile footboard, and was all but left hanging by the neck, and subsequently recovered damages from the town which had undertaken to punish him, for the untrustworthiness of its penal accommodation.

At page 60, by an odd oversight, the *North Briton* is spoken of as a work in "forty-five volumes." Nor is *quean*, in old English, otherwise than very rarely synonymous with "scold," the definition of it given at page 28.

CONWAY'S CARLYLE.

Thomas Carlyle. By Moncure D. Conway. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

MR. CONWAY'S book has been in a measure anticipated by his *Harper* article and his newspaper correspondence, which are included in it, and to a less extent by the various publications that have appeared since Carlyle's death. The 'Reminiscences' especially are calculated to take the edge off whatever follows them in the way of intimate personal gossip. Indeed, judging from the narrative of Mr. Conway, who had unusual advantages in learning all about his subject, one is induced to reflect that the 'Reminiscences,' whatever the circumstances under which they were written, and however superficially distorted the view of Carlyle presented by them may be, leave little to be said concerning him. To many people they were a surprise and to some a shock, unrelieved by the consideration that they were possibly not intended for publication. Mr. Conway declines to "admit that the outcries of a broken heart should be accepted as the man's true voice, or that measurements of men and memories as seen through burning tears should be recorded as characteristic of his heart or judgment." But really he does not himself contribute anything to show that "the man's true voice" was essen-

tially different from the exhibition of it in the 'Reminiscences.' Quite the contrary. He shows, and we take it that any one who gives us authentic *ana* about Carlyle must show, that his "true voice" was thoroughly elusive, and his utterances, to a larger extent than any man we know, of anything like the same parts, dependent upon his own feelings at the time. There is certainly no gainsaying that the 'Reminiscences' themselves prove this; and in the very thing that his apologists plead in extenuation—namely, the effect of his suffering on his judgments—consists the fatality of the blow with which Mr. Froude is said to have stabbed his fame. Mr. Conway only confirms what most of Carlyle's later readers have long felt—that his readiness to say, within certain limits, whatever came into his head, and to color it with his own feeling, of elation or depression, at the moment, fatally impaired his title to the reliance which apostles are fain to place upon the deliverances of a master. To relate, as Mr. Conway does, that he was roused to denunciation that attracted the passer-by upon hearing of some negro outrage; that he sympathized with Bishop Colenso's "wronged African Langabelele"; that he "helped arrest schemes" to obtain English aid for "the unspeakable Turk"; that the Harvard Memorial volumes moved him to say, "even with tears," "I doubt I have been mistaken"; that he was a hater of tyranny, opposed to all the wars England has begun, "from the Crimean to the Afghan"; that he defended Mazzini, and protested against the proposed Westminster memorial to the Prince Imperial—only confirms this. It is merely excellent testimony—not needed, surely, by any one who has read Carlyle with discernment—to the keen and broad nature of his sympathies. It is wholly possible to agree with Mr. Conway when he says that "those who have regarded Carlyle as a mere worshipper of brute force have formed a superficial judgment"—a notion originally promulgated, we believe, by the late Margaret Fuller, in whose presence one can fancy the conversational license which Carlyle, restrained before no one, permitted himself. Whether or no one shares Mr. Henry James's belief that ideas are too divine to derive any authority from the persons who hold them, it is clear that the first step to an appreciation of Carlyle's is to bear in mind that they are, if anything, to be scrutinized somewhat carefully on account of being his.

In this and in other respects the early letters appended to Mr. Conway's narrative confirm the 'Reminiscences.' These letters are the most interesting portion of his book, though we cannot agree with Mr. Conway, who says they contain passages "not surpassed by anything he [Carlyle] has since written"; who, when he got hold of them, "finished them in the early hours of the morning"; and who, to make extracts from them, sat up "through the best part of a couple of nights." They were written to two friends during the days of Carlyle's pedagogy, when he was about twenty years old. They contain no promise of his powers, literary or otherwise; but they disclose with perfect clearness the germs of character afterward developed. The main surprise of the 'Reminiscences'—if not indeed, to many readers, their only surprise—was the revelation of a character far more completely occupied with itself than Carlyle had ever revealed elsewhere. Nothing that is not to be called laudable ambition is to be discovered in the following extract, but it is safe to say that before the 'Reminiscences' appeared it would have sur-

prised people to find it in an early letter by the author of the 'Letter-Day Pamphlets' or of the Edinburgh address:

"Heaven knows that ever since I have been able to form a wish, the wish of being known has been the foremost. O Fortune! thou that givest unto each his portion in this dirty planet, bestow (if it shall please thee) coronets and crowns, and principalities and purses, and pudding and power upon the great and noble and fat ones of the earth; grant me that with a heart of independence, unyielding to thy favors and unbending to thy frowns, I may attain to literary fame."

Such a wish as that in the son of James Carlyle of Ecclefechan is significant. Elsewhere he says, with the contrition of a true native of Ecclefechan: "When I review my past conduct it seems to have been guided by narrow or defective views, and (worst of all) by lurking, deeply lurking, affectation." There is some excellent criticism of Gibbon in a letter of 1818, the writer being then twenty-three, but it is not precocious, and at the end there is a sufficient intimation that Carlyle's unteachability was ingrained: "I wonder what benefit is derived from reading all this stuff. . . . It is vain to tell us that our knowledge of human nature is increased by the operation. Useful knowledge of that sort is acquired not by reading but by experience." He refers often to Epictetus with admiration, saying in one place, evidently after reading Gibbon, that the 'Encheiridion' "may fortify the souls of the latest inhabitants of the earth." Homer pleased him little. "In fact, Mæonides has had his day. . . . Though some of the affections which Homer delineates are co-existent with the race, yet in the progress of refinement (or change) his mode of delineating them will appear trivial or disgusting, and the very twilight of his fame will have an end." In 1824 there was this excellent anticipation of his portraiture of Coleridge: "Coleridge is a steam-engine of a hundred horses' power, with the boiler burst." Ten years later he wrote to Leigh Hunt: "I am writing *nothing*; reading, above all things, my old Homer and Prolegomena enough; the old song itself with a most singular delight." A remark of Emerson's after visiting Carlyle which Mr. Conway gives is worth quoting: "Mirabeau, he said, interested him; and, I suppose, whoever has given himself with all his heart to a leading instinct, and has not *calculated* too much." That is precisely the philosophy of 'Heroes and Hero-Worship.' Mr. Conway gives also several new anecdotes and bits of Carlyle's discourse, of which we can only find room for the following:

"Those Dutch are a strong people. They raised their land out of a marsh, and went on for a long time breeding cows and making cheese, and might have gone on with their cows and cheese till doomsday. But Spain comes over and says, 'We want you to believe in St. Ignatius.' 'Very sorry,' replied the Dutch, 'but we can't.' 'God! but you *must*,' says Spain; and they went about with swords and guns to make the Dutch believe in St. Ignatius; never made them believe in him, but did succeed in breaking their own vertebral column for ever and raising the Dutch into a great nation."

Illustrations of the Earth's Surface. Glaciers.

By Nathaniel Southgate Shaler, Professor of Palæontology, and William Morris Davis, Instructor in Geology, in Harvard University. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

THIS is the first volume of a proposed series designed to illustrate the prominent features of the

earth's surface by means of photographs and other pictorial or graphic representation, with the view of conveying to the student a clearer conception of the subject than can be given by words and diagrams only. The plan contemplates a number of volumes, each independent of the others, devoted severally to Glaciers, Mountains, Volcanoes and Earthquakes, Lakes and Plains, Rivers and Valleys, the Sea and its Shores, Structure of Rocks, and the Effects of Life. It is intended that the illustrations shall be accompanied with descriptive text; and, moreover, each of the several volumes will present some statement or discussion of the essential facts and theories that belong to its special subject. In the volume now at hand Professor Shaler, the senior author, discusses, in a series of thirteen chapters, the phenomena of existing glaciers, the distribution of existing and ancient glaciers, the origin and nature of glacial periods, their climatal conditions, the evidences of ancient glacial periods, the effect of glaciers on the altitude of the lands, the effect of glaciation on the life of the earth and its relation to the history of man, and the movement and certain effects of glaciers.

The phenomena of glaciation are deeply interesting to the student of the earth's structure and history. Ice, as a geological agent, has played a most important part in modifying the past or shaping the present features of the earth, and in producing a large portion of the deposits which form its surface. But in considering the relations of glaciation to the history of organic life on the earth and to the early development of man, and in contemplating its possible relations to the career of the human race in the distant future, Prof. Shaler finds the subject invested with an interest greater than that belonging to any other branch of geology. In the light of recently-acquired evidence it is certain that man existed before the last glacial period and survived its trials; and it is equally certain that the earth has been repeatedly subjected to cold periods, which have covered the continents again and again with sheets of ice such as now only occupy a small space of lowlands about the pole and the uppermost levels of the higher mountains. Prof. Shaler believes that there is no reason to expect an early recurrence of such a cold period; nevertheless, one might need such a reassuring belief in considering the peculiarly delicate adjustment which, in his introductory chapter, he points out as existing between the conditions of temperature and moisture and life on our planet. Life here would be impossible if the temperature of the whole earth's surface should, for a considerable period of time, rise above 160 degrees or fall below 32 degrees Fahrenheit, a range of only 128 degrees; yet the range of temperature in the universe around and near us is said to be enormous beyond conception. The surface of the sun cannot have a temperature of less than 100,000 degrees Fahrenheit, while the temperature of some portion of the space between the earth and the sun is probably not less than 250 degrees below zero. It is the vapor of water in the atmosphere which, acting like a blanket, prevents the escape into space of the heat essential to terrestrial life. If a line one hundred feet long be taken to represent the total range of temperature in the solar system, a length of little more than one inch will represent the utmost limits of the range of temperature at which organic life, such as now exists on the earth, can possibly maintain its existence. Under these circumstances one might fear that a fatal change

of temperature at the surface of the earth might be too easily brought about by some slight "accident," liable to occur in a much better regulated universe than ours sometimes appears to be.

Professor Shaler's collaborator, Mr. Davis, has contributed what appears to be a very full and valuable chapter on the bibliography of the subject; has prepared the diagrams necessary for the illustration of the text, and has selected and described the plates. The latter, twenty-five in number, make an interesting collection of photographic representations of glaciers and glacial scenery. The larger portion are Swiss, naturally enough, but there are others from Norway, India (by Bourne & Shepard, Calcutta), and the Rocky Mountains (by Jackson, United States Geological Survey of the Territories), besides glacial striae, slickensides, and drift-sections from New York and Massachusetts. The purpose and arrangement of the collection are such as to show, first, a general view of glacial form; second, detail of structure from greater to lesser altitudes; and, third, effect of glacial action. The subjects are well chosen and adapted to the purpose intended, and the general effect of the pictorial series is very pleasing. The volume is a handsome quarto, containing about two hundred pages of letter-press, followed by the plates, which are generally so arranged that each opens opposite its page of descriptive text.

The Library. By Andrew Lang. With a chapter on Modern English Illustrated Books, by Austin Dobson. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

MR. LANG'S share in this little volume of the "Art at Home" Series consists of three chapters, of which the first and third are entitled respectively "An Apology for the Book-Hunter" and "The Books of the Collector." The second alone treats of the Library, and in a manner neither exhaustive nor particularly regardful of the "home." In fact, there is nothing domestic in the pursuit of the book-hunter and collector, and Mr. Lang's sub-heading in the second chapter—"Women the natural foes of books"—is but half a jest, considering the class for whom his work is really intended. "The amateur, then," he says (p. 33), "is the person we have in our eye, and especially the bibliophile who has but lately been bitten with this pleasant mania of collecting." And this person "loves to have his study, like Montaigne's, remote from the interruption of servants, wife, and children." We must not look, then, for any dissertation on the family uses of a library, or its essential place in a cultivated household, or its relation in the plan to the other living-rooms, or for much practical advice on library conveniences, as to which five minutes spent at the rooms of the Readers and Writers' Economy Company will be worth vastly more than Mr. Lang's forty pages. In short, what he has written must not be taken seriously, but as something with which he amused himself and hopes to amuse others possessed of a like passion; and in view of the collaboration of Mr. Loftie, who supplies the technical information as to early printed books and illuminated MSS., and of Mr. Dobson, Mr. Lang's part appears to have been mainly to give the literary flavor to the pot-pourri. He does this successfully, albeit with a humor not always kept south of Tweed. Among his book-hunting anecdotes is the first-rate one of M. Tenant de Latour's finding among the leaves of an 'Imitatio Christi' belonging to Rousseau the immortal

periwinkle of the 'Confessions'; and a good one of his own luck in extracting from the vellum covers of an old 'Odyssey' "parts of two copies of a very scarce and curious French dictionary of slang," handy for interpreting the slang *ballades* of the poet Villon. Before taking leave of Mr. Lang we should not omit remarking on the careless and unscholarly proof-reading of the chapters for which he is immediately responsible.

Mr. Dobson's account of illustrated books is of a truly helpful sort for the collector, and is enhanced in value by liberal examples of designs by Bewick, Stothard, Blake, Cruikshank, Doyle, Tenniel, and many other English artists. In some instances we think he might have employed facsimiles to advantage. He praises and defends the American school of engraving associated with *Scribner's Monthly*, from which he borrows the cut of "Infant Joy" after Blake.

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Pomeroy, J. N. Treaty on Equity Jurisprudence in U. S. Vol. I. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1881.
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